Vol. II NOVEMBER, 1924 No. 3

PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

CONTENTS

Standardization in Nomenclature and Description of College Courses ---- 117
K. J. Hoke

The Inquiring Mind in Education ---- 123
G. C. Gamble

Motivation of Physical Exercises ---- 128
Bergoth Sand

Our Southern Folk Speech ---- 135
Harry Harrison Kroll

Capitalizing the Extra-Bright Child ---- 141
Marguerite Aull

Physical Defects—Their Relation to Achievement Scores and to Each Other ---- 147
J. N. Mallory

Problem-Solving Method in Teaching the Social Sciences ---- 153
R. Ray Scott

The Educational Value of Bulletin Boards in School ---- 161
J. Stanley Pullen

An Experiment in Schoolroom Decoration ---- 163
Charlotte Hodges

Editorials ---- 165
The Cost of Textbooks
Experimentation in Textbooks
Teachers and Textbooks
Textbooks and Politics
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
Fuligo Splendens
Standing the Gaff
Turning Over a New Leaf

The New Books on Our Shelf ---- 173

Published bimonthly by the Faculty of
GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
NASHVILLE TENNESSEE
Two dollars a year Single copies 40 cents

PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Copyright, 1924, by the Faculty.
George Peabody College for Teachers.

Edited and Published by

THE FACULTY OF GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

CHARLES S. PENDLETON, *Chairman*

CHARLES E. LITTLE — JOSEPH PETERSON

CHARLES A. McMURRY — SHELTON PHELPS

ALMON E. PARKINS — ALFRED I. ROEHM

HANOR A. WEBB, *Business Manager*

The PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION is published bimonthly—in July, September, November, January, March, and May—at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. The subscription price is $2.00 per year; single copies, 40 cents; less than a half year at the single-copy rate. Single copies can be supplied only when the stock on hand warrants. Foreign postage, 20 cents a year extra.

Entered at the post office at Nashville, Tennessee, as second-class mail matter. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized September 14, 1923.

The Ward-Belmont School

FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN

Aims to inculcate the noblest ideals of efficient, wholesome, cultured womanhood.

Ward-Belmont offers a six-year course of study embracing two years of college. It meets the demands of a discriminating patronage in Literary Work, Music, Art Expression, Home Economics, Business and Physical Training. The curriculum is shaped to meet individual capacities and aims. The faculty is select. The beautiful campus and buildings and the country club three miles distant afford ample opportunity for the development of mind and body.

FOR CIRCULARS, ADDRESS

J. D. BLANTON, PRESIDENT

Ward-Belmont School — Nashville, Tennessee

PEABODY JOURNAL
OF EDUCATION

VOLUME II NOVEMBER 1924 NUMBER 3

STANDARDIZATION IN NOMENCLATURE AND DESCRIPTION OF COLLEGE COURSES

K. J. HOKE
Dean of the College of William and Mary

The college official who comes in intimate touch with students before or after they enter an institution of learning is frequently struck with an indefiniteness and, at times, almost hopeless confusion as to the end such students wish to attain through attendance at college, and also as to the means necessary to attain this end. It might be said that this indefiniteness is due to a lack of life purposes among boys and girls who come to higher institutions of learning. Be that as it may, a hurried examination of the catalogs from any of our representative higher institutions will give evidence of the fact that the variety in names and description of courses fail, in a large measure, to make clear to the prospective student the objectives they are seeking and the means necessary to obtain these objectives. This same confusion is found when an official of one institution attempts to adjust to the program of studies in his institution a series of courses which a student is bringing from another institution. I have frequently received from students records of their work in other institutions which were so incomplete that it was almost impossible to interpret them in order to permit these students to make their transfer without loss of time and duplication of effort.

The statement can be made and justified that in general the practice in outlining college courses shows wide variety and great diversity. This situation is not confined to any one college department. Evidence to support this statement is found in the following exam-

ples of the description of courses in Education as outlined in two of our leading universities. It will be noted: first, that the numbering in each is different; second, that what one institution puts under "Principles of Secondary Education" another classifies as "High School Administration;" third, that from the description of several courses no conception whatever can be obtained of the large topic to be covered in the courses; and, fourth, that the unit of evaluation is indefinite and different in each case.

Institution 1—

6. *Principles of Secondary Education.* Evolution of high schools and of the fundamental conceptions of secondary education; proposed reörganization; relation of high schools to the state systems; legal status, articulation with elementary school, the colleges, technical school, the community, and the home, the teaching staff; reconstruction of curriculum, "controls" of instruction; direction of "student activities." Planned for those who expect to teach in secondary schools. I, II; (3).

Institution 2—

2S. *Principles of Secondary Education.* A course in principles of education with special reference to the problem of high-school teaching. 1.6 credit.

113S. *High School Administration: Principals and Teachers.* The problems of the high-school principal in supervising teaching, conduct of teachers' meetings, distribution of load, and the marking system. 2 credits.

115S. *High School Administration: The Curriculum.* A study of the theoretical and practical considerations involved in the organization of subject-matter in the high school. 2 credits.

117S. *High School Administration: Principal and Pupils.* A study of the problems of school government, discipline, student self-government and the honor system, pupil guidance. 2 credits.

From the above examples, which are typical of college catalogs in general, the following conclusions can be drawn: (1) There is confusion in theory, practice, and objectives in Education. (2) Students are greatly confused in the selection of their courses. (3) There is considerable inaccuracy and waste through duplication of work and through the transfer of credits.

In November, 1921, the Southern Association of Teacher Training Institutions appointed the following committee to make a study of the practice of different institutions in presenting their college courses to the public: Dr. K. J. Hoke, Dean of the College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia, Chairman; Dr. Shelton Phelps, Professor of School Administration, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee; Dr. W. F. Tidyman, Superintendent of the Training School, State Normal School, Farmville, Virginia. In order to secure an expression

from a group of representative college departments toward the observance of certain uniform practices in outlining college courses, the following information was obtained from a questionnaire sent to the heads of the department of Education in forty-five institutions:

QUESTIONNAIRE AND RESULTS

		Yes	No	Not Answered	Indefinite
I. Numbering—					
1. Years indicated by Roman numbers, as I, II, etc.	No.	23	7	8	7
	%	51.1	15.6	17.8	15.5
2. Semester indicated by lettering, as A and B, C and D, etc.	No.	23	8	5	9
	%	51.1	17.8	11.1	20.0
II. The name should indicate—					
1. Place of content in field of information, as (1) History of Public Education in United States; (2) Supervision of Instruction in Elementary Grades	No.	41	1	3	--
	%	91.1	2.2	6.7	--
2. Field of application	No.	30	2	10	3
	%	66.7	4.4	22.2	6.7
III. Content of course should contain—					
1. Persons for whom course is intended—i. e., superintendents or principals or teachers	No.	37	1	1	6
	%	82.3	2.2	2.2	13.3
2. Prerequisites, such as six semester hour credits in Psychology	No.	41	1	1	2
	%	91.1	2.2	2.2	4.5
3. Large topics in the field of information covered	No.	39	--	2	4
	%	86.7	0	4.4	8.9
IV. Value of course—					
1. Amount of credit, such as three semester hour credits	No.	42	1	2	--
	%	93.4	2.2	4.4	--
2. The hour and days of meeting, such as 10 A.M., Monday, Tuesday, Thursday	No.	29	7	2	7
	%	64.4	15.6	4.4	5.6

From the above tabulation the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. The method of numbering suggested in this questionnaire did not receive general approval.
2. There is practically universal agreement that the description of courses in education should contain, wherever possible, the following:

(a) The place of content in the field of information.
(b) Persons for whom a course is intended.
(c) Prerequisites.
(d) Large topics to be covered.

3. An analysis of the suggestions from the persons filling out the questionnaires indicates that the heads of departments of Education consider more uniformity in the nomenclature and description of courses of prime importance, and that a movement in this direction would receive their support.

As a result of this study, the following plan is suggested to those who are charged with the responsibility of writing college catalogs. While the data on which the above conclusions have been drawn and the following plan based are taken from departments of Education, the conclusions and the plan are applicable to other college departments.

Proposed Standardization in Nomenclature and Description of College Courses

I. *Unit of Evaluation.*

1. *The quarter hour,* which represents one hour of lecture work per week for twelve weeks.
2. *The semester hour,* which represents one hour of lecture work per week for eighteen weeks.
3. *The session hour,* which represents one hour of lecture work per week for thirty-six weeks.

NOTE: Two hours of laboratory work are approximately equal to one of lecture work.

II. Scheme of *numbering.*

1. College on semester basis—
   (a) First digit to indicate *year.*
   (b) Second digit to indicate *semester.*
   (c) Third digit to indicate *rank of course.*
   (d) Example: English 111 is the first course in English given during the first semester of the freshman year.
2. College on quarter basis—
   (a) First digit to indicate *year.*
   (b) Second digit to indicate *quarter.*
   (c) Third digit to indicate *rank of course.*

(d) Example: English 332 is the second course in English given during the third or spring quarter of the junior year.

3. Graduate courses, 500 and over.

III. *Name and Description* of Courses.

1. Content to include large topics of subject-matter covered.
2. Any prerequisites.
3. In most specialized and elective courses, name should indicate the field of information and the workers for whom the course is intended.

IV. *Typing.*

1. Number and name in heaviest and largest type.
2. Credit, text, time, place of meeting, and instructor, if included, in medium type.
3. Description in smallest type.

V. *Reporting Courses.*

All official records reporting work of college students should carry—

1. Full record of entrance units.
2. College credit giving—
   (a) Number and name of course.
   (b) Semester or quarter given.
   (c) Number of weeks and hours per week.
   (d) Value, in terms of quarter, semester, or session hours.

The suggestions in the foregoing plan are simple, so that any professor can easily observe them in formulating his courses for publication. I have placed these suggestions in the hands of many professors in various college departments. In each case it has been exceedingly gratifying to see the interest and support with which they have been received. The following are descriptions of courses which have been prepared by professors for publication:

ENGLISH

411 — Browning and Tennyson and Other British Poets of the Nineteenth Century. Three quarter hours, twelve to one—Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays. Mr. _____. Prerequisites, junior or senior standing.

This course is recommended for general culture. It will include a careful study of the best dramas, dramatic monologues, and lyrics of Browning and Tennyson, and extensive reading in Wordsworth, Coleridge, Scott, Byron, Shelley, and Keats. Themes will be written at regular intervals, and a term essay showing special work upon some phase of the course will be required at the end of the term.

Text: Page's British Poets of the Nineteenth Century. (Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.)

PHYSICS

331 — Alternating Currents. Five quarter hours, ten to eleven—Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays. Four hours of laboratory, two to four—Wednesdays and Fridays. Mr. _____ Prerequisites, one year of general physics and one year of calculus.

This is a beginning course in alternating currents intended for engineering students and for students taking major or minor work in physics. Such topics as frequency, inductance, capacity, impedance, power, factor, resonance, and laws of oscillating circuits will be covered.

Text: No textbook. References.

EDUCATION

421 — Supervision of Instruction. Five quarter hours, eleven to twelve daily, except Saturday. Mr. _____

This course is intended for persons preparing to be principals, supervisors, and superintendents. It can be taken with profit by teachers of experience who have at least nine quarter hours in education. Emphasis will be placed on the field of secondary education, although the field of elementary education will be considered. The following topics will be covered: Need for supervision in instruction; training necessary for supervision; the child, his characteristics and method of learning; subject-matter, its nature and form; method, general and individual; the curriculum, its construction and interpretation; factors of study; standards for judging results of teaching; type lessons and demonstrations.

Text: No text. References and special assignments.

Conclusions

1. Inasmuch as standards in nomenclature and description of college courses deal primarily with the mechanics of such courses, there seems to be no justification for college departments in not observing the same principles of uniformity as are observed in other fields of educational endeavor.

2. While uniformity in the mechanics of college courses is of prime importance, it must be kept in mind that this phase of college work is only a means to an end.

3. The promotion of a movement for the establishment of ultimate uniformity in nomenclature and description of college courses could well come through such organizations as the National Education Association or the regional accrediting organizations and other associations which enroll colleges as members.

THE INQUIRING MIND IN EDUCATION

G. C. GAMBLE

Dean, State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Ky.

From time immemorial there have appeared among all races certain individuals widely differentiated from their fellow men in the possession of an abnormal amount of impersonal curiosity, acute observation, and the power of comparison and generalization. At infrequent times these individuals have assumed a momentary importance (ordinarily during times of stress and impending disaster); but, for the most part, the attitude of the general public to the research worker, the investigator, the scientist, is chiefly one of indifference or toleration. Because progress comes chiefly through trial, experimentation, and the generalizations of individuals with the spirit of inquiry, it is highly desirable that society give fuller recognition to investigators, or research workers.

Historically, education has ranked as a practical art; but with the application of the technique of the investigator and scientist to school problems, it is rapidly becoming an applied science. Based on the assumption that these phases of human phenomena are dependent on natural law, progress will involve a constant search for the principles underlying current and future school practices. Through quantitative measurement and thoughtful interpretation, without personal bias, of the resulting data, there is practically an unlimited field of investigation in education, though inevitably circumscribed by definite knowledge in psychology, sociology, biology, and other natural sciences.

Educational inquiry in the past has been difficult because of a lack of commonly accepted methods of classification, especially of ends or aims; quantitative units of measurement have been needed, and there has been a marked absence of technique and of command of scientific procedures such as are common in other fields of inquiry. The validity of research is fundamentally dependent on the method of attack, and an outstanding feature in the development of educational psychology in recent years has been the building up of sound methods and technique for proceeding upon an inquiry.

Present practice makes a wide use of two methods of research, the first being known as historical, the second as experimental. The former method, already used widely in history, sociology, and many phases of administrative study, requires careful collecting of source

materials and data. From these, generalizations can be made, laws deduced, and future trends tentatively determined. The experimental method, for some time widely used by psychologists, involves studying changes or variations in the elements of a situation wherein there are carefully selected cases subjected to controlled conditions. In both methods the first step comprises the collection of data or source materials, either by observation, literary research, controlled measurement, or questionnaire; the second step consists of arrangement of the data or phenomena in workable form; and the last step involves study of this material and deduction therefrom of a principle or law, or the statement of a conclusion following inevitably from the experiences utilized.

Frequently it happens, in new fields of scientific research, that there is at first over-enthusiasm and a lack of discrimination in the adoption both of materials and of conclusions. This stage is followed sooner or later by a marked reaction, which is due to just criticism that the primary claims and overstatements are not altogether defensible. A final step is a compromise between the exuberancy of the first and the excessive reaction of the second stage.

To a considerable extent this kind of intermittent advance has been made in the study of education. Unquestionably it is a wasteful procedure, which should, if possible, be eliminated in evaluating new educational materials. This can be done only by substituting really careful scientific experimentation and measurement for the undiscriminating semi-scientific propaganda which so often characterizes the early stages of an investigation. The development of statistical technique and the progress now attained in laboratory experimentation have provided tools of research so dependable that the mere fact of possessing them ought definitely to preclude acceptance of new educational proposals before their merits have the stamp of validity.

It is true that mere opinions and sometimes personal feelings often form the basis of action of boards of education and school administrators. So complex a structure have the schools become, however, that really able administrators now deem it necessary to have collected accurate and ample information regarding all phases of educational activities, so that their actions may be based on facts. For this purpose approximately fifty bureaus of educational research have already been established in various cities in the United States, and there are numerous school superintendents who, in the absence of such assistance, are utilizing supervisors, principals, and teachers as investigators.

Detroit, Boston, Atlanta, Denver, Baltimore, New York, Oakland, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and Kansas City have official departments,

with the definite function of improving education through systematic research. A study of the publications of these bureaus reveals the following activities (given in the order of frequency) as typical of their undertakings: Testing (mental and educational); classification of school children; surveys and statistics; educational and vocational guidance; devising record forms; curriculum making; publicity; and a series of other activities of limited frequency. These latter, indeed, raise the question whether research bureaus at present furnish a catch-all for difficult assignments; their exact place in the school organization seems not yet to be altogether clearly defined. The present trend in their activities does, however, clearly indicate that the functions to which they most generally apply are those closely associated with the social and psychological problems of the school child. The city director of research has ordinarily the rank of assistant superintendent, and the salary paid approximates one-half the salary of the superintendent.

Research has traditionally been regarded as a legitimate function of a university staff, prominence in this field being a weighty element in salary determination. The modern attempt, nevertheless, to make wholly scientific the department of education in colleges and universities has been attended by many difficulties. In the first place, any innovation in the deep-seated routine of collegiate and university procedure invariably meets with criticism and resistance; and even if place be won, the attitude to be expected is one of sufferance; secondly, the department of education has inherited some of the characteristics of the now discredited old type of normal school, and the blight of dogmatic pedagogy still persists in university circles; finally, the suspicion is not unwarranted that much of the work now done by such departments of education under the guise of scientific inquiry lacks the true spirit of systematic research.

What are some of the current criticisms of educational investigations, and what constructive measures need we who, as individuals, are interested in research and its application, take to meet these?

Collecting source material and experimenting in education offer difficulties to the investigator not encountered so frequently in the field of the exact sciences; the factors are here more complex, the elements more difficult to isolate, and the conditions imposed more diverse and difficult of standardization. A general criticism of educational investigations here stands out at once. Numerous studies which have been made in education have revealed a seeming inability therein to delimit the investigation in accordance with the clearly attendant circumstances of time and financial limitations. There is also much improper sampling of cases. And perhaps most frequent

of all the defects of this general class seems to be an apparent disregard for contributory elements. As a natural consequence of these and other grave errors of technique, far-reaching and hasty conclusions have been drawn. The inevitable result is that this masquerading, and really unscientific, treatment has warranted and received sharp criticism.

Following the precedent of a long-time industrial practice, a number of moneyed institutions, foundations, and public benefactors are now subsidizing for educational research the services of supposedly properly qualified investigators and providing for them the conditions that will permit of sound scientific research. It is, therefore, increasingly important, lest these valuable contributing agencies become discouraged, to countenance only sound technique.

A second general criticism is based on the current rather wide misuse of statistics. Chief among the errors of this sort may be cited: Worship of the great god "Average;" over-refinement of method in utilizing crude and inadequate data; disregarding the unreliability of testing instruments; carelessness in sampling; overworking the theory of correlation by ascribing causal effects; assuming, in computing relationship, rectilinear regression for all educational data; use of formulæ derived from the normal curve of frequency where the number of cases is small and where the form of the distribution has not been determined; forming a generalized conclusion where the specific data warrant only particular deduction; lack of distinction, in prediction technique, between cycles of short frequency and conditions with long-time trends and results; and, in addition to these, perhaps countless other statistical fallacies.

A survey of the educational investigations thus far performed reveals to the uninitiated a crazy-quilt of unrelated patches. Terminologies vary to such a degree that much of our current educational controversy may be ascribed to differences in categories rather than in substance. An essential need, apparently, then, is a scientifically constructed classification of intellectual tools with which to work and a commonly accepted pattern upon which educators may seek to plan. Unquestionably there is much duplication of effort. A national organization, serving as a coördinating agency, a clearing house for data and source material, and for the dissemination of judicious advice toward safeguarding technique, would do much to advance the cause of research.

Many of the results of educational research are ineffective also because of the fact that the written description abounds unduly in technical phraseology. This is unquestionably the result largely of a tenacious scholastic tradition that men of science consciously or un-

consciously write chiefly for each other. In education this clearly ought not to be true. In order to humanize educational research, it may very possibly become necessary to adopt the services of a "popularizer" who, while presenting scientific conclusions in a form intelligible to the public, may yet be relieved of the criticism of superficiality or inaccuracy.

It is a sad commentary that such a gap as has herein been noted exists between current practice and the scientifically constructed theory of research. Practice must be reorganized and readjusted so as to produce results which will the sooner enter into the current of daily educational thought and conduct. Bridging actuality and possibility in educational practice imposes upon the investigator the double task of scientifically developing theories with feasible applications and of humanizing this knowledge for current acceptance by our patrons—the public.

MOTIVATION OF PHYSICAL EXERCISES

BERGOTH SAND
Groton, Connecticut

The aim of teaching physical exercises is to coördinate the mental and motor interests in order to produce and maintain a state of sound health in the child. Attaining this goal is the best the school can do for future generations, and for this reason physical training should receive as much if not more attention than any subject in the curriculum. The chief reason why it has not obtained more desirable results in the past is that it has consisted mainly of a set of mechanical exercises which were required by the school. These, however, were uninteresting to the majority, because they were related to neither the experiences, desires, nor needs of the pupils. The part of the physical training which was voluntary was interesting because of the motives of class and individual rivalry, and was suited to the comparative few who naturally excelled in the work. But those who needed the training the most because of their lack of physical fitness were barred from the interesting portion of the subject by the high standard which they could not hope to attain. The natural result was that the few who did take part did not need the work as much as they did the other subjects of the curriculum which they neglected because of the excessive interest in athletic contests, while the others who should have had the work to counteract the ill effects of too much sedentary and mental effort dropped the part of the physical training which was not required.

At that time the subject-matter was the prime factor of importance. Now there is a strong movement toward consideration of the individual. He is the one who is vital, not the subject-matter. At the present time schools are judged from the standpoint of what they do to develop each child, mentally, socially, and physically. They must do their share and also help to teach the parents how to bring the children to successful maturity. This cannot be done unless there is efficient coöperation among all those dealing with the child in his school life. The parent, teacher, physician, nurse, superintendent, and school board should all coöperate in promoting the development of the child.

The first consideration should be to obtain a proper environment, from a hygienic standpoint, during school hours. The problems to

be solved are how to secure the best ventilation, lighting, system of heating, and seating so as to prevent undue strain on certain muscles, the prevention of contagion, and the maintenance of a high standard of cleanliness of both the child and the school. When the surroundings have been made conducive to the health of all the children, attention may be centered on points of individual interest.

It should not be difficult to arouse the intense interest of each pupil in physical training, for it has the greatest of all incentives—the natural desire to be strong, healthy, and beautiful. If this aim is kept before the individual so constantly that he cannot lose sight of it for a single lesson, it will develop into one of the most desirable habits it is possible for the school to establish. In order to bring this about, the pupils must be made to comprehend the actual object of each lesson; and if it cannot be explained, the lesson is not worth teaching. Few pupils will find physical training uninteresting when they realize that each exercise given is for the sole purpose of developing their own bodies. The most mechanical exercises will then have a new meaning and will prove of vital interest to the individual.

To be ideal and thoroughly motivated, nature must be imitated so far as possible in physical exercises. It is natural for all children to like to play, and much can be done with this instinct if directed properly. Games should form a major part of the subject throughout the grades, as the motives are natural, and, therefore, more desirable. Mechanical exercises work toward the same result as games, but, requiring artificial motives, inspire but superficial, if any, interest in the majority of pupils.

In the primary grades the games should be simple, and at first should consist of those the children already know. Thorough familiarity with a game causes it to be one of the prime favorites with all children. It would be well to remember this fact in teaching new games, as the teacher would then understand why her pupils seem to avoid playing one just learned, even though at first they appeared eager to learn it. The reason for it is that until they have played it so many times that they are entirely familiar with it, it appears more like trying to acquire a mass of facts than a game. Simplicity and frequent repetition are essential requirements if the game is to be popular with the pupils. This is true of even the upper grades, as those games calling for greater physical rather than mental effort are the more popular.

From the first grade up the children show a desire to imitate their elders in their play hour when they are allowed to play as they wish. Invariably some adult occupation will be imitated, based on the personal experience and observation of the individual. Thus children

will be found making mud pies, dressing dolls, building houses, preparing medicine for dolls and animals in miniature hospitals, etc. The far-sighted teacher will utilize these natural imitative instincts by motivating the lessons of the classroom with them. Thus the children will have access to a sand table, where they can build dams, bridges, reservoirs, locks, islands, deltas, and innumerable other projects to illustrate their daily lessons. With little trouble and expense this natural instinct may be utilized to motivate the physical exercises during the recess and noon periods by providing the children with piles of sand and clay, where they may carry out the ideas of their imagination or those which have been instilled by some lesson. A little supervision of this play will tend to encourage the more timid to work out their ideas without fear of criticism by an adult. It will also give them a greater variety of games, as the uses to which these piles of sand may be put are unlimited.

In singing games also the children tend to imitate the occupations or customs of their elders. A few examples of this may be "The Farmer in the Dell," "A King Came a-Riding," "Water, Water," "Wild Flower," "The Mulberry Bush," and "Oats, Peas, Beans, and Barley Grow." Many of the singing games are, however, not founded on an occupation observed by the children, but are simply rhythmical lines of nonsense. Even these are valuable for their rhythm, the tonal quality of singing, the social lessons they teach, and the muscle culture. Some illustrations of these singing games are "Looby-loo," "Barney Had an Elephant," "London Bridge," "Round and Round the Village," and "Ten Little Indians."

Each teacher of little children should make the most of these singing games, as the children soon pass the stage where they enjoy them. Growth into the period of self-consciousness lessens their power to throw themselves whole-heartedly into such games, and they soon unconsciously select others for their favorites.

While industrial games continue to be prime favorites, particularly where the environment is as conducive as is the country, other games begin to have a stronger fascination for the somewhat older child. The collecting impulse is innate in every child, although much stronger in some than others. This may be utilized as a splendid motive for nature study and geography lessons, for interest is not difficult to obtain when the pupil has aroused it naturally by former experiences with the same object. Children who have collected insects, flowers, pebbles, leaves, etc., show intense interest in the study of the subject in the classroom. Besides developing the mental side of the individual, it offers one of the best of all physical exercises. To collect specimens of any sort calls for the exercise of those muscles not receiving

as much attention as they should in the ordinary classroom. Besides this, the absolute change of environment also acts as a stimulus to the tired nerves which could not be obtained by the same kind of work in the school building. For this reason teachers should encourage field excursions and hikes as much as possible, not only for the new interest children are sure to obtain in the particular field of study for which they are seeking specimens, but because of the splendid opportunity offered for the development of muscle culture and the general promotion of health. In this way nature study, drawing, geography, and elementary science may be correlated to great advantage with physical training.

Another reason for making the most of those exercises tending to develop the larger muscles is that they are the best protection against moral evils, found to some extent in every classroom of the average school. To eliminate and still better to prevent these evils to the greatest extent, correlation is needed with hygiene. When this branch of the work is taken over by the school or district nurse, it is more satisfactory, as she is better prepared to talk on the subject of sex and morality and finds it easier to do so, as she does not come into daily, even hourly, contact with the pupils. A frank discussion of the facts of life and the results of the abuse of the sexual functions will eliminate that portion of the wrongdoing which has been based on the usual mystery of the unknown, appealing because shrouded with secrecy. The controlling of the normal sexual passions will be rendered much easier if the desires of the adolescent are understood by those in charge and exercises are given for that purpose. This work may easily be correlated with physical training, for the exercises may take the form of hikes, class races, skating, coasting, hill climbing, and dancing. The efficient supervision of some adult is necessary for these exercises out of doors, preferably the teacher in daily charge of the pupils. She has had more opportunity to observe and understand the individual pupil, thus fitting herself to help him to greater advantage to develop to successful maturity. Any tendency to moral weaknesses should be noticed without calling attention to it in any way, as this might simply result in increasing the practice secretly. The ideal method of correction is to destroy the abnormal desire by substituting frequent exercises. An individual case might be treated by seating the child near the teacher's desk and keeping him constantly busy by extra errands requiring physical activity. If a reasonable period of time is allowed and no beneficial results are secured, a frank discussion may take place between the teacher or nurse and the child. In some cases it may be more advisable for the teacher to report the case to the parents of the child, asking for their coöperation

in eliminating the weakness. Whatever method seems the most advisable, something should be done to correct the tendency before it develops into a confirmed habit.

The games of conflict which play so important a part in the modern schools are a great aid in motivating physical training. The natural instincts of rivalry and the desire for the approbation of others come into full play here, rendering the work intensely interesting simply because of the motives. Some of the games of conflict are racing, wrestling, hunting, boxing, and playing ball, although other games may contain this motive in a smaller degree. When efficiently supervised, these are very desirable on the school grounds, giving the teacher or physical director a good opportunity to develop in the individual a regard for justice and fair play. Allowing the class to elect a captain and committee to supervise these games gives the children a sense of responsibility which will be of much value in later years. This does not mean, however, that the teacher need have no further responsibility of the playgrounds, as in the majority of schools this is neither practicable nor desirable. With the aid of a captain and committee, the duties of the teacher will be much lighter and will at the same time give her the opportunity to play the part of a real companion to her pupils instead of a guard. Once this feeling of companionship has been established between teacher and pupils, the problem of discipline on the grounds will be reduced to a minimum. The minds of the children will be turned from the devising of trouble-making schemes to taking part in the interesting games started among the various groups by the teacher. What pupil will not have an increased feeling of respect and genial comradeship for a teacher who, in the boys' vernacular, is a "good sport?"

One of the best forms of motor activity is dancing. Besides teaching correct bodily habits, it teaches gracefulness, poise, balance, rhythm, ease of movement, self-control, and correct posture, and at the same time creates a sense of exhilaration and freedom. For the valuable exercises it gives in muscle culture alone it is worthy of a prominent place in physical training. Because of the natural sensation of joy which accompanies dancing, it is desirable as a physical exercise, for the work is certain to be thoroughly motivated, thus appealing to the majority of the pupils. The modern dances are not so desirable as the old folk dances, as they do not contain sufficient bodily activity to offset the sex appeal. A suitable course may be made for all the elementary grades by selecting the best dances of all nations.

In the primary grades the "Danish Dance of Greeting," "I See You," "The Chimes of Dunkirk," and "Pop Goes the Weasel" are particularly appropriate because of their simplicity and popularity with small

children. The dances of the intermediate and grammar grades may be selected according to the proficiency of the pupils and the time allotted for the work. A choice of the more well known, representing various nationalities, may be the "Highland Fling," "Reap the Flax," the "Csardas," the "Norwegian Mountain March," the "Irish Lilt," the "Tarantella," the "Chicken Reel," and the "Sir Roger de Coverley." The Spanish and Flemish dances are also very desirable, although not so widely used in the public schools.

The most satisfactory method of teaching folk dances is with the use of a victrola. After the first steps of the dance are taught, the rest of the work may be done outdoors, providing the weather is suitable. With a portable victrola this is easily accomplished, and is worth doing because of its pleasure and health-promoting features. Dancing outdoors tends to lead the child to throw off all restraint and enjoy himself to his full capacity. Individual characteristics will appear at this time which will enable the observant teacher to understand each pupil better, for in the classroom the atmosphere is not so conducive to such freedom. In the rural school a victrola is even more necessary than in the city, for usually no other instrument is available; or if there is, there is no one to play it while the dance is being taught. The victrola may be operated by a pupil of another grade, if the teacher is busy at the time. Besides being a pleasure to the individual intrusted with the work, it increases his sense of responsibility.

Folk dancing may be used as the basis of many entertainments in either the city or the rural school. For a Thanksgiving entertainment the old American dances such as the minuet and the Virginia reel may be given. For a May-Day entertainment the "Butterfly," "To-day's the First of May," and "Blackberry Blossoms" are especially suitable. If an entertainment is given solely to show the work of the class or school in dancing, the dances of those nationalities most strongly represented in the schools should be given, not forgetting those which seem to be slipping into the background, the American dances. To secure a friendly feeling of the schools of the town, an evening may occasionally be devoted to dancing folk dances together in one or another of their school buildings. This should be done only with the full knowledge, consent, and chaperonage of the parents, both to avoid unfortunate mishaps and to lighten as much as possible the extra work of the teacher. If carried out properly, this work may turn out to be as beneficial as the meeting of the various schools for athletic contests on Field Day. The great amount of activity which is required for folk dancing, as compared with modern dances, is one of the most desirable features of this form of social

activity, as it results in exercise-promoting health and the right moral attitude of one sex toward the other.

Thus it may be seen that the most successful way of teaching physical exercises is to motivate the work by relating it to the child's needs, experiences, and desires. The development of health by muscle culture is related to his needs, and is backed by the powerful incentive of the earnest desire of each child to be strong and healthy. The imitation of adult customs and occupations may be successfully carried out by allowing the child to play "pretending" games of his own imagination in the school grounds. A child will instinctively fall back on his experience and observations to aid his imagination in this work. The games of conflict or competition may result from the child's desires, as the motives of rivalry and ambition are always present. The stronger the motive which is provided, the stronger the impression will be and, therefore, the more lasting the influence or memory. Besides these instinctive motives, others may be secured by correlating physical training with other subjects of the curriculum. For this work the field is as unlimited as the ingenuity of the teacher in charge. In the teaching of singing games, folk dancing, marching, and the more mechanical exercises, the work will be more interesting if correlated with music. Accuracy, uniformity, and better rhythm will thus be secured more easily. Nature study, geography, science, agriculture, hygiene, and physiology all provide motives by which the lessons of both subjects may be rendered more interesting by their correlation. A little thought and a little more careful preparation are all that is necessary to carry the work through to successful results.

Whatever the subject which must be slighted because of lack of time on the program, physical exercises should never be the neglected one, for the promotion of health is of supreme importance to the individual. Knowledge is of little value without the accompaniment of health to use it, whereas sound health is priceless to even the future generations, and the interest of every child should be stimulated to try to attain this goal.

OUR SOUTHERN FOLK SPEECH

HARRY HARRISON KROLL
Lula-Rich Consolidated School, Lula, Miss.

The new teacher and the pupils who lived in the direction of her boarding place were returning home from the first day of school.

"*Hit war* the biggest moccasin snake ever I *seed*, Miss Morgan," said one, excitedly. "I *'low* hit war all of a *hunnerd foot* long. I *upped* with a pine knot and *swatted* hit, and then I run, *me!*"

"Hit *wa'n't* no moccasin snake, neither, Miss Morgan," explained another, who adhered strictly to the facts in the case. "Hit was a black *eraser*. I've *saw* a million of 'em, I reckon."

"They're both the biggest l'ars in the world, Miss Morgan," interjected a third, outraged by these statements. "Don't pay no attention to *nary* a one of 'em."

But Miss Morgan, because of her whole training, could not refrain from paying attention to them. Such horrible language was enough to make her faint. It offended her, outraged all of her education and culture.

Arriving at her boarding place, she was conducted to the *cook room* for a *snack* of supper. The meal consisted of a platter of *fry*, another of *vegetable, pone bread, so'ghams, pot-likker, b'iled* meat, and *'tater* pie. Afterwards the family repaired to the *house*, where the eldest daughter showed her to her bed in the *shed room* when she should wish to *lay* down.

For perhaps an hour she listened to a general history as *norated* by her host, with occasional addenda for the sake of accuracy from *granny*, who occupied a *chimbley* corner and smoked a clay pipe.

"The last teacher was a *stiff-neck*," explained the old man. "She was a *right clever* woman, though, when a body got to knowing *of* her. I tell you, she was a *power* in grammar. *Knowed* all the fancy ways of talking *slam from a to izzard*. I *axed* her one day was *tooth-dentist* proper, and she told me all the reasons why hit wa'n't. I *dis-remember* most of 'em now, though. We used to *mouth* around *mightily* about proper talk, *fur* back *in my day and time* I war considered a right *smart scollard, me*. But we *didn't* have *nothing* in them days like proper talk. It war thought good enough then if you could figger through the rule of three and spell in the blue-back through *baker*. Heap o' change. Heap o' change."

"*How?*" demanded granny, cupping her hand to her ear.

"I said," repeated the host in a shout, "times *air* changed from *whut* they war *onct*. Maw's *deef*," he explained in a normal tone to the teacher. "But I *holler* at her *ever' onct* in a while to *ca'm* her mind. We war *afeerd* onct that she was losing *of* her mind along with her hearing. Hit looks *like* we're *bleeged* to do whut we *kin* to ease her old age."

"Well," stretching and yawning openly, addressing his wife, "*ag'in* you *git* the beds turned down, hit'll be time to roll in."

So they all *rolled in!*

For the time being Miss Morgan held her linguistic peace; but as she got her pedagogic wedge driven in more firmly, she read the children such a verbal sermon as to make a philologist's hair stand on end. When she left at the end of the year, she had accomplished what she was pleased to regard as a marvel of language reform. She had succeeded at two things—killing off a lot of perfectly good Chaucerian and Shakespearean English, and making the eldest daughter of the family, at least, so self-conscious and diffident that the child no longer spoke freely in a rich idiom, but in a stilted, bookish language with which so many school-teachers—if the average professional magazine article is a fair index—conceal their thoughts, if they have such. She departed the community without a single dialect note, attended school that summer at a teachers college, studying a lot of "devices;" and so a typical linguistic crime was perpetrated, and nobody ever knew who the victim was or where he is buried. The teacher meant well, but so did the old-time doctor who bled his patient to death for high blood pressure.

What is this speech the school marm is so persistently killing out? Nothing more than the purest Anglo-Saxon tongue that exists, probably, in the world to-day. The dialect one encounters in the rural South, particularly the mountain dialect and the piney-woods vernacular characteristic of the lowland people scattered coastwise from South Carolina, through Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, into Arkansas, is a surviving fragment of a tongue pretty well gone by the board now. It will survive but a short time longer, for the school-teacher is after it with a formalized book-language swatter that no verbal insect can dodge.

Probably it must go; but, at least, it should be preserved in dialect studies for the philologist who comes in later generations. If the school marm is determined to slay it, she ought at least to embalm its remains.

Language is always mixed deeply in political history. When America was opened up by colonization, it was natural that the settlers

should bring their language with them, and should later modify it in some respects, while remaining densely conservative in others. Mencken, in his *American Language* (p. 69), states it thus: "In remote parts of the United States there are still direct and almost pure-blooded descendants of these seventeenth-century colonists. Go among them, and you will hear more words from the Shakespearean vocabulary, still alive and in common service, than anywhere else in the world." That is the language the school marm is killing off as rapidly as she can run it to earth and decapitate it.

The language which Miss Morgan listened to is a complex affair of certain archaisms mingled with corruptions, elisions, and the tendency of primitive tongues to go to the soil for their idiom.

For instance, *hit* has an ancestry far more blue-blooded, perhaps, than the school-teacher who condemns it. It could make an F. F. V. blush, or one who came over in the Mayflower. In Chaucer's "House of Fame" and "Book of the Duchesse" it occurs over and over again. If the versions of Chaucer which we have to-day are safe guides, it is clear that all England in the fourteenth century used this "tacky" pronoun. The same is true of *axe* for "ask," although its use is far more restricted, and it occurs in the same sentence with *aske*, indicating that usage had not as yet—1369-70, the date assigned for the writing of the "Book of the Duchesse"[1]—become crystallized. The poet writes:[2]

> But men mighte axe me, why so
> I may not slepe, and what me is,
> But natheles, who aske this
> Leseth his asking trewely.

Again:[3]

> Hit is no nede eek for to axe
> Wher ther were many grene graves. . . .

Afeered for afraid has the same dignity of age. Notice the following lines:[4]

> How dorste ye seyn for shame unto your love
> That anything mighte make yow aferd?

It might be deduced that the backwoodsman's *et* for "ate" or "eaten" shows its antiquity in the following line:[5]

> That any worm hath ete, or worm y-stonge. . . .

---

[1] Neilson & Patch: *Selections from Chaucer*, page xxiii.
[2] Skeat's version, "The Book of the Duchesse," lines 30-34.
[3] Skeat's version, "The Book of the Duchesse," lines 416-17.
[4] Skeat's version, "The Nonne Preestes Tale," lines 98-99.
[5] Skeat's version, Prologue of the "Pardoner's Tale," line 38.

Wa'n't for "weren't" or "wasn't," so rarely heard now even in dialect districts, has an even more honorable lineage. The school marm might well bow and scrape to this descendant of royalty, for no less a personage than Charles II, king of England, sanctioned it and used it.[6] When the backlander uses it, he is preserving an ancient and honorable specimen of the king's English.

While *obleege* for "oblige" may not possess quite the dignity of *wa'n't* in verbal castes, it, nevertheless, is quite ancient, and in its day and time was wholly respectable. A school marm in the seventeenth century would have been shocked out of all conscience had she heard some one say *oblige*. It all depends on whose century is being gored.

When the man of the house told Miss Morgan that his mother was *deef* and shouting at her tended to *ca'm* her mind, he would not have scandalized Noah Webster, the lexicographer, in the least; in fact, Webster would have nodded in grave approval. In 1789[7] flat *a* was in common use in England, for in Webster's "Dissertations" he makes *wrath* rime with *hath*, with the same sound of the vowel in *balm* and *calm*. Clearly times have changed in more ways than one!

The verb *upped*, however, is a different matter. The same language law is exemplified in the expression, "I hain't faulting my elders," in which a backwoodsman once explained to me that he did not hold his elders at fault for not sending him to school. Another expression belongs to the same general category: "He cooned the footlog," and, "The dog treed the rabbit in a hollow log." Perhaps the last expression is most common with us, and is scarcely thought of as anything differing from the normal. Yet in its essence it is as peculiar as *upped, faulted,* and *cooned.* We are accustomed to it; that is all. Which gets at another language law: It's only the other fellow's language which is crude and uncouth! (like his morals). The law to which these words conform is noted by Lounsbury:[8] Words have the ability to pass from one part of speech to another. Thus "salt" may be a verb, adjective, or noun—all in everyday usage. When the backlander says *upped*, he has converted a respectable adverb or preposition into a verb; in *faulted* he has made a verb from a phrase; in *cooned* and *treed* he has made verbs of nouns. We are doing it every day, and nobody thinks anything about it. When I *oil* my typewriter to write this paper, or *crank* my flivver to rest in a drive from my arduous labors, I do the same thing.

"This tendency," says Lounsbury, "for words to pass from one part

---

[6] Elizabeth H. Hancock: "Southern Speech," *Neale's Monthly*, November, 1913.
[7] Mencken: *The American Language*, page 70.
[8] Lounsbury: "Linguistic Causes of Americanisms," Harpers: 127; 133-39, June, 1913.

of speech to another, so general in our speech, was once hard for many to accept as justifiable, and doubtless still remains hard for some." He goes on to say that it is all right to use head, face, and eye as verbs; e. g., 'He was headed in the right direction; The soldiers faced the general; The man eyed me keenly.' But we must not use tooth, ear, mouth, etc. The backwoodsman, however, is likely to be very little concerned with Mr. Lounsbury's prohibition. We find him saying, "Quit nosing into my affairs;" "He mouthed at me and I slapped him over;" "John's car broke down and he footed it ten mile home." The cultured group largely obeys Mr. Lounsbury; hence we have the uncouth forms of dialect. But who shall say that in the final analysis the backlander's tongue isn't as pure as the aristocrat's? It comes from exactly the same sources, obeys the same language laws. And the teacher who sets herself up as a language expert ought at least to know this underlying truth, even though she cannot sanction the word itself.

To show how little language snobbishness avails when there is real need for the language form, we have only to note such common words, which are accepted without the least question, even in the best society, as notice, advocate, progress, and opposed. Franklin was bitter against them, and sought to persuade Webster to use his authority against their acceptance into the language. The pestiferous things would not stay put in their respective parts of speech. For instance, notice is derived from the phrase, *to give notice;* progress from the phrase, *to make progress.* Franklin was a fine old fellow, and did a lot of good for the world, but he *slipped up* in trying to inflict phrases upon a people who prefer to talk in words instead of phrases and in monosyllables instead of polysyllables. Often, indeed, the teacher refuses to admit the existence of such a law, and undertakes a labor that even Franklin could not achieve.

The point of it all is this: Language has certain inexorable laws. Two of them are, curiously enough, duelistic. These two are: (1) *The tendency of all language to remain static;* (2) *The tendency of language to be forever changing.* The teacher who kills idiom is using her official position to force the second law to operate against the first. She would inflict upon the backwoodsman her own static language, which in her impressionistic youth she modified glibly enough. For youth is the real modifier of language. She isn't doing much with the old settler, but she is making his children language-conscious. Perhaps it is just as well, although the old language has a beauty and force about it which the new thing seemingly does not possess.

The school-teacher can do nothing else. The higher culture always takes the right of way, and the teacher is the exponent of this culture.

Her real guilt lies in the fact that her knowledge is merely superficial —a bit of formal grammar; some spelling conventions which even her own sort call "demons"; a few pronoun and verb inflections of a language no longer inflectional; and a bookish, artificial vocabulary borrowed largely from the Latin and Greek. What the teacher needs is some below-the-surface knowledge; for instance, the lost art of embalming. Then the scholars would have some linguistic corpses to examine after both teacher and backwoodsman have passed to their rewards.

CAPITALIZING THE EXTRA-BRIGHT CHILD

MARGUERITE AULL
Chattanooga (Tenn.) High School

After I had set up and accepted this topic, I asked myself: "Really, now, what does it mean?" "And who is he?" "And what are they doing for him?" When I began to investigate, I found that no one seemed to know very much about him, that every one had something different to suggest, and that the only thing that they did agree upon was that the extra-bright child did exist. And finally the thought came to me that it was presumptuous, but perhaps not altogether unwise, for a mere teacher to find something to say to fill in the gap until the Doctors—Ph.D.'s, of course—could agree.

Many schemes have been suggested, and none of them adopted wholly. The three most popular ones are segregation, rapid promotion, and an enrichment of the curriculum. I have no intention of making this paper scientific; most of my readers probably know better than I what has been done in California, or in Detroit, or elsewhere. What concerns us is not what they have done elsewhere, nor even what they have done in Tennessee, but what they are going to do here and elsewhere. But, since they (whoever "they" are) do not themselves know, it would be folly for me to attempt to tell.

As a matter of fact, all the schools have segregated, and are continuing to segregate, the children as nearly as is possible. I asked a teacher in a private school what she did with the extra-bright child. "The what?" she asked. I repeated my question. She laughed and said: "Haven't any." And then she went on to tell me that in her school that matter took care of itself by the end of the first year; in the second year the child found himself very naturally in the group to which he belonged. The matter of segregation in the public schools is not so simple a matter as that, owing to the fact that there are so many different groups of subjects to be dealt with. I think one of the hardest things for a teacher to realize—that is, if he has been teaching long enough to remember the day when it was his duty to bring the dullest up—is that he need not—should not—expect from the second period the same amount of work nor the same grade of work that he expects from the fourth, though technically both must cover the same ground. But good as this scheme of segregation seems, it has not solved the problem of what to do with the extra-bright child, for you still have the extra-bright child with you. Three sets of them,

in fact, if you accept the usual division into A, B, and C classes, based upon the I. Q. Any such division must of necessity be a hard and fast one; and if you make your groups range from I. Q., 80 to 99, let us say, 100 to 119, and 120 to 135, you still have the extra-bright in each group. There is no great difference between the highest of Group B, 119, and the lowest of Group A, 120, but there is considerable difference between 100 and 119. You say that the difference is not so great as it would be in a large, heterogeneous class, and this is true; nevertheless, some marking of time must be done by 119 while he waits for 100 to catch up with him.

Rapid promotion has its possibilities, but it has one great drawback, as I see it. In spite of all you may say of the abnormally bright child's seeking his associates among those of his own mental age regardless of chronological age, I still feel that much of the joy of living is taken away when he begins to associate with those whose physiological age is greater than his. Why railroad a child into college at sixteen, to be thrown with men of twenty-six?

The third suggestion—and one that teachers were following long before they were given permission to care for the extra-bright child—is an enriched curriculum. It was done, perhaps, in self-defense—it became necessary to keep Mary busy while you taught Jane. I suppose that we have all had much the same experience, and that is of the fact that the extra-bright child is apt to be mentally lazy. The fault is ours, of course. We have been so busy trying to pull John out of the ditch that we have not noticed that Henry has gone to sleep while he waited for us. Why shouldn't he sleep? What else was there to do? He became tired of seeing us pull John out of the ditch every day. There is only one thing left for us to do, and that is to let John stay in the ditch until we have set Henry to gathering flowers.

The pendulum has swung decidedly in favor of the extra-bright child. I wonder if it has not swung too far. I wonder if, in our effort to cater to the mind, we have not lost sight of the fact that there are other forms of intelligence. Harold Rugg, in an article, "Curriculum for Gifted Children," published in the Twenty-third Yearbook, Part I, makes a division that I was delighted to find. He says: "Four chief divisions of our army of gifted youths are now arrayed before us: verbally intelligent, socially intelligent, mechanically intelligent, esthetically intelligent." I am afraid we have become slaves to the verbally intelligent, losing sight of the fact that without the mechanically intelligent we would still be living in straw huts and crossing our rivers on rafts. In our sudden admiration for the verbally intelligent, we lost sight, too, of the esthetically intelligent, without whom life would be merely an existence. How often have we read, "He's a

genius at mechanics; but", we add, "he is a perfect dub at his studies." The other formula you never hear. You never hear one say, "He's abnormally bright, but he has no turn for mechanics"—or "ear for music," as the case may be. Quite the contrary; if you should say it at all, you would turn the sentence around and put the accent on the but—"He has no mechanical sense, BUT he is abnormally bright"—and we would understand that he had stored up in his brain a fair heap of facts that he might perhaps never use.

But the greatest oversight of all has been, I think, in our failure to recognize the socially intelligent. From this group come our leaders, and for that reason it should receive our greatest attention. Some authorities claim a high correlation between the socially intelligent and the verbally intelligent. Rugg says: "I incline to the view that the correlation between the gross ability to get along with people and the gross ability to manipulate verbally stated ideas is low: that is, that many verbally gifted are socially mediocre or socially retarded, and *vice versa.*" (p. 92.) I do not agree with Rugg that the socially intelligent is either mentally mediocre or dull. But if the verbally intelligent does not partake of social intelligence also, he becomes a pedant, a recluse, and all his knowledge is useless except for the pleasure he gets from hoarding it—unless, of course, he becomes one of the rare geniuses of the world.

It is the duty of the schools to develop, first and foremost, the social impulse in all classes of intellectuals. Quite often a verbally gifted child is not a social success, while his neighbor, whose intellectual qualifications are much less, has a real hold on the students. The class may admire John and stand somewhat in awe of his brain, but they love James and follow him. And if we are not very careful, John, as he increases in knowledge, will pull a shell around him and retire into oblivion, where he may enjoy the fruits of his brain alone, while James will go through life friendly and helpful—a somebody in the community.

The day has come when it is imperative that our leaders be men and women of real intelligence, with a broad, catholic outlook on life and a skill in the handling of people. As the matter now stands—at least this has been my experience—the extra-bright child is not the ambitious one. Our fault again; but the fact remains that the child who goes in for the extra curricular activities is not, as a rule, the child with the unusual I. Q. Neither is he the child with a low I. Q.; he belongs to the large middle class and has a strongly marked social intelligence.

As you glance back over this year, who do you find have entered the oratorical contest, or the declamatory contest, or even the essay

contest? Haven't you found that your volunteers came from the socially intelligent class rather than from the verbally intelligent? And if your verbally intelligent entered at all, it was because you urged them? When you chose the characters for your play, did you consult the record book to find the boy or the girl with a high I. Q.? No, you didn't; you took the bright-looking and socially alert child, who had a fair amount of brains and was not actually failing in his work. You trusted, unconsciously, to that social instinct to "put it over," and it did.

If we accept Rugg's division—and I do—of the children into four separate intellectual types, it means that we have four intellectual types to develop. But no one of these types is complete without some touch of the others, and each must have a large share of the social. The problem then becomes a complicated one. We must find some means to increase the child's natural intelligence and at the same time increase his social capacities.

Often we have in school children whose I. Q. is high, but whom somehow we have not discovered. One of the best methods of finding out what you want to know is to set the child to talking—in the form of an oral theme—on his hobby. Each child will find his level, and you will find him. I have in mind a boy with an I. Q. of 119 who cannot—perhaps I would better say, does not—write a readable one-page theme, but who will talk as long as I will let him, on radio. His ease and flow of language surprised me; he handled words that would have made me hesitate. But I "placed" him—my problem was to bring his verbal intelligence somewhat nearer his mechanical intelligence. The social intelligence was fairly well developed. One child may talk on baseball, another on football. One of the best themes I had this year was from a boy with an I. Q. of 108. He talked on snakes, and at every turn of the corner he pulled another snake skin out of this pocket or that. Let this boy talk on birds or snakes or Indian arrowheads, and he is quite at home. I find that the good talkers are not the extra-bright, but that, on the contrary, there is a diffidence about the extra-bright child that makes him conscious of himself and shy, unless, of course, he has been spoiled by too much praise; but, as a rule, the extra-bright child is not conceited. I find, too, that where the mechanically bright will find a subject for his oral theme, where the esthetically bright will find a subject for his theme, and the socially bright will find a subject for his theme, the verbally bright will be mediocre in his selection. The verbally bright does not begin to have the initiative that any one of the other three has. If you want the best from him, you must find something for him to talk on, for he has no strongly marked hobby or interest. He would not consider that his interest—

books—was anything to talk on. If you assign to him any special theme, however, he will, if it interests him, go even deeper into the matter than you hoped.

The verbally bright and the socially bright are the two that touch the teacher of English most closely. The esthetically bright comes next, but with the mechanically bright we have little to do except to turn that gift into good account socially. One good way of taking care of the verbally bright and offsetting that restlessness which comes with the inactivity of marking time is by giving him extra assignments, those that will take him deeper into the subject than he can go from the text. In the freshman class we study *Julius Caesar;* the extra-bright child may be made responsible for some such topic as the theater in Shakespeare's day, or the source of the play, or some customs of the Elizabethan time. These serve two purposes—they not only increase the child's store of knowledge, but they also train his social side, for he tells the class what he has found out, and is ready for their questions. Now I do not say that this scheme is a success—the youngsters are, after all, only freshmen—but if continued the plan is bound to have its effect.

Clubs, such as reading clubs, memory clubs, etc., have a place; but there is danger, especially in the first, of the less bright child's crowding out the necessary studies in order that he may read as many books as another. There is an element of competition that is hard to control.

My favorite scheme is thrusting some social responsibility upon the verbally bright but socially diffident child, such as making him editor of the class paper or head of a group for whom he is responsible and from whom he is to get the book reports or the memory work. I have gone so far as to make him responsible for a set of test papers that I gave in a lower class. I think it is well to turn the class over to him occasionally; but this can be done better in the upper than in the lower classes. There are a hundred and one responsibilities that come up during the year that a teacher can and should throw upon the children.

To all the discussion on what work one should give the extra-bright child comes this question, "How shall we give him extra credit?" It is a pity, but it is true, that the child himself will say: "Do I get extra credit for this?" And if he doesn't, he does not want to do it. We have no scheme worked out to take care of any extra credit; and if we had, I should not be in favor of giving it. I think too many people in this world work only for the credit they get. It is a shame to let the child grow up with the idea that he must be paid for everything he does, even if that thing in itself enhances his own worth. Work should

be for the love of the work, for the pleasure in learning, and for the satisfaction of acquisition.

In closing, let me say that there is one extra-curricular activity in which a teacher may, if he will take the time, develop almost all of the known types of intellect; the only type that does not have a special part to play is the purely verbal; that activity is a drama, a play. The parts are played by those who combine a fair verbal intelligence with some social; the business end is given to one of high social ability and a good verbal mentality; the stage management goes to the boy with a large social intelligence; the lighting goes to the mechanically intelligent, either with or without the social side; the decorating goes to the esthetically intellectual, either with or without the socially intellectual side.

The more I think about the extra-bright child and how we are to use him, the more I am convinced that the extra-bright child, whether he be verbally, mechanically or esthetically bright, must be given a larger share in the social responsibilities. We want our leaders to be men and women of intelligence—of well-directed intelligence; for men and women will follow, not the man of brains, but the man who has made use of his brains to win them. All the capitalization of the extra-bright child should be toward making him a socially intelligent creature.

PHYSICAL DEFECTS—THEIR RELATION TO ACHIEVEMENT SCORES AND TO EACH OTHER

J. N. MALLORY

President, Jonesboro College, Jonesboro, Ark.

School authorities are realizing more than ever before that soundness of body counts for a great deal in education. Every teacher, even though he may not have had long experience in the school business, can doubtless recall physically incompetent children struggling to maintain a respectable class standing and to keep pace with the more fortunate members of their class. In the school from which the data for this study were taken there were two girls that represented the two poles of school success. One of these girls was a class leader. Physical examination revealed the fact that she was also an excellent physical specimen. The other girl, though she had equal school and social advantages, stood at the foot of her class. On being examined, she was found to have defective teeth, elongated tonsils, defective vision, and nasal obstructions. Both these girls were later given a series of standard achievement tests. The average score of the poor student was 25% below that of her more fortunate friend. This backwardness was probably not due to her lack of mental ability, as was shown by the results of a mental test. Was it due to her physical condition, or was this just one of those "happen so's?" The degree of such a probability was the subject of a recent investigation made by the writer.[1] In this investigation, 565 children, ranging from the first grade to the eighth grade, inclusive, were given expert physical examinations.[2] Of these pupils, 515 had previously been given mental and achievement tests.

The results of the investigation showed rather conclusively that, in the case of each of the major defects, there is a more or less significant positive association with *low scores*. The least significant coefficient found was the one between defective eyes and scores, while the most significantly large one was between nasal obstructions and achievement. A positive association was also found between general defects and achievement scores, the coefficient being .126. These

[1]Mallory, J. N.: *Relation of Physical Defects to Achievement.* Contribution to Education, No. 9, George Peabody College for Teachers.

[2]Mallory, J. N., and Rutledge, L. D.: *Survey of the Humboldt Schools.*

coefficients have been summarized in Table I. In this table, column one shows the coefficients indicating the apparent relation between the physical defects mentioned and achievement scores, no consideration being given to other factors. Column two shows the corresponding coefficients after intelligence as a factor has been eliminated by partial correlations. Column three shows these same coefficients after they have been further corrected by eliminating the influence of retardation. It is reasonable to suppose that there is some relation between defects and the number of years a child is retarded, between achievement scores and number of years retarded, and between intelligence and number of years retarded. The data were available for finding these relations, and by using Pearson's formula the coefficients in column three were derived. Judging from these coefficients, nasal obstructions would be most likely to cause backwardness. If a student has any one of these five major defects, he is somewhat likely to be backward, though, for certain specific defects considered by themselves, the probability is less than would be expected.

TABLE I

ORIGINAL AND DERIVED COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PHYSICAL DEFECTS AND ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

Defects	*Original Q*	*Q with Influence of Intelligence Eliminated*	*Q with Influence of Intelligence and Retardation Eliminated*
Tonsils	.138	.122	.110
Vision	.029	.010	.024
Nasal obstruction	.799	.811	.814
Teeth	.302	.294	.289
Hearing	.351	.266	.262
General defects	.210	.175	.126

It is the purpose of this study to go further into the investigation and to show the probable accumulative effect of having an increasing number of physical defects. This is an important question for teachers, supervisors, and experts in vocational guidance. For convenience in studying the problem, it has been attacked from two angles. First, *What is the probable effect of an increasing number of defects on achievement scores?* Second, *What is the probability that, in a random selection, any pair of defects will be associated?* For instance, one might wish to know if having defective hearing and nasal cavities would be assocated with a loss in efficiency equivalent to the sum of the separate losses usually found with the two defects. And, again, one might wish to know the probability that some one defect (such as hearing) will always be accompanied by defective nasal cavities.

Table II shows the distribution of 503 of the above group of children according to the number of defects reported for each child.

Rows marked 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 represent the distribution for groups having no defects, one defect, two, three, and four defects, respectively. The similarity of the distributions of the rows, as well as the resemblance of each to a normal distribution, is striking. This would seem at first to indicate that an increasing number of defects had little effect on the score; but this is not true, as will be seen from the fact that the arithmetic mean of each of these rows is not the same, neither is the standard deviation the same. If these are worth anything as measures in this case, it will be seen from Table III that the mean of the rows decreases rather uniformly as the number of defects increases. This alone would be sufficient to indicate that the number of physical defects is associated with the achievement scores of the group, and hence also of the individual students, though this uniformity may be due in part to a common cause, such as poor mental ability. The average student with no defects makes 96.26% score, while the average with four defects makes only 67.5%, a difference of 28.76%.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF DEFECTIVES WITH RESPECT TO MEDIAN PER CENT SCORES AND NUMBER OF DEFECTS

Defects	*Scores*																				
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	200
0	2		1	3	2	12	14	15	38	37	34	22	13	6	1	4	1	1	2	4
1	1	1		2	1	5	11	19	27	41	25	26	10	3	3	1	1	1		
2						1	11	6	15	31	8	8	3	3	1	1				
3						1	1	4	4	9	4									
4		1					1		2											

The standard deviation also decreases from row to row as the number of defects increases, except in the last row, where there are too few cases to be significant. This probably means that highly defective individuals do not deviate as widely from the mean as do sound ones, though they are grouped around a lower average. This may mean that the less susceptible to training a group is, the less widely they differ in range of scores, and that the more highly defective children are, the less they respond to training.[3] On the whole, there is a fifty-fifty chance that an additional defect will mean a decrease in per cent score of 10.18%. This is indicated by the fact that the regression of defects on scores is found to be —10.18. The correlation coefficient between the number of defects and scores, as determined by Pearson's mean-square contingency formula, is —.392. This alone would indicate that the probability is that scores decrease with the

[3]The small number of cases, four, with four defects, coupled with the nonlinear regression, requires, of course, that great caution be observed in interpreting these data.

number of defects. But, of course, the amount of decrease would be expected to vary among different combinations. For instance, adding defective vision to defective hearing would probably not produce as great a decrease as adding defective breathing to defective hearing.

It is evident that none of the above measures indicates the exact manner in which such a loss increases as the number of defects increases. These losses are indicated in column three, Table III. They seem to show that successive losses are not additive. Two defects more than double the loss sustained from a single defect. Neither is two a common ratio. A suggestion may be added, tentative because of the small number of cases examined, that there is some indication that these losses increase geometrically, forming a series with a common ratio. This ratio might possibly be three, giving a series approximating 1, 3, 9, 27, etc.; but, at most, this can here be stated only to be suggested. If this ratio were known to exist, it would then follow

TABLE III

MEAN PER CENT SCORES DISTRIBUTED BY NUMBER OF DEFECTS AND LOSSES DUE TO EACH ADDITIONAL DEFECT, TOGETHER WITH PROBABLE ERROR OF DIFFERENCE, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Number of Defects	*Mean Score*	*Standard Deviation of Distribution*	*Loss of Difference of Mean*	*S D of Differences of Mean*	*Number of Cases*
0	96.26	28.3	0	0	
1	95.17	23.8	1.09	.835	212
2	93.14	18.6	3.12	.885	178
3	88.48	13.0	7.78	1.058	23
4	67.50	28.6	28.76	4.519	4

that having two defects would be three times as harmful as having one, while having three would cause nine times the loss of one. This would be true only in a general way, because, as explained above and shown by the correlation coefficients, certain defects are more harmful than others.

As to the reliability of the data, it is necessary to show that the loss in mean score indicated is not due to fluctuation in sampling. The standard deviations of the distributions of Table II are shown in Table III. From these and by use of Yule's formula,[4] the standard deviation of the differences shown in column four were determined. Column five shows these. In every case, except the first, the difference is more than three times the standard deviation of the differences, and indicates some influence other than fluctuation of sampling. The reliability of the data is, of course, lessened again by the smallness of the number of cases in rows three and four.

If the facts presented above show, in some measure at least, that

[4]Yule: *Introduction to Theory of Statistics*, page 316.

TABLE IV

EYES, NOSE, HEARING, TEETH, AND TONSILS

Partial Correlations of the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Orders.

Correlations Sought										Defects	Influences Eliminated
Tonsils Teeth	Hearing Teeth	Hearing Tonsils	Nose Teeth	Nose Tonsils	Nose Hearing	Eyes Teeth	Eyes Tonsils	Eyes Hearing	Eyes Nose		
.241	.293	.459	.257	.189	.636	.065	.052	—.011	.414	1st Order	Original Coefficient.
.245	.290	.460	.356	.207	.724						Eyes.
.243	.108	.447				—.222	—.038	—.469			Nose.
.123			.096	—.157		—.062	.064		.582	2nd Order	Hearing.
	.21		.22		.566	—.079		—.081	.439		Tonsils.
		.414		.125	.674		.069	.018	.473		Teeth.
.241	.004	.528									Eyes and Teeth.
.127			.165	—.240							Eyes and Hearing.
	.205		.299		.660						Eyes and Tonsils.
		.412		.104	.70						Eyes and Teeth.
.262						—.166	—.194			3rd Order	Nose and Hearing.
	—.010					—.204		—.448			Nose and Tonsils.
		.432					.012	—.461			Nose and Teeth.
			.101			—.058			.590		Hearing and Tonsils.
				—.228			.068		.625		Hearing and Teeth.
					.639			—.011	.368		Tonsils and Teeth.
.305											Eyes, Nose, and Hearing.
	—.127										Eyes, Nose, and Tonsils.
		.494									Eyes, Nose, and Teeth.
			.153								Eyes, Hearing and Tonsils.
				—.384							Eyes, Hearing, and Teeth.
					.745					4th Order	Eyes, Tonsils, and Teeth.
						—.145					Nose, Hearing, and Tonsils.
							.262				Nose, Hearing. and Teeth.
								—.303			Nose, Tonsils, and Teeth.
									.665		Hearing, Tonsils, and Teeth.

an increasing number of defects is likely to be accompanied by an ever-increasing loss in score, the second problem becomes important. *What are the probabilities that any one of the major defects is accompanied by any of the others?* In the study of the problem from this angle, coefficients of association between the various defects have been resorted to, and data from the same physical examinations have been used. In Table IV, both total and partial coefficients of correlation have been worked out and tabulated.

The discussion now turns to an interpretation of Table IV, in order to determine the *degree of association between the various defects.* It was indicated by both the total coefficients and the partials that certain pairs of defects were more closely associated than others. For instance, bad eyes were found with nasal obstructions more often than with any other defect. Nasal obstructions were more frequently associated with bad hearing; likewise bad hearing was most often found with nasal obstructions. Defective tonsils were most often associated with bad hearing, and bad teeth with bad tonsils.

Why this association? The answer to this question is beyond the scope of the present investigation. The data in hand are altogether insufficient. Again, which of an associated pair, if either, was the cause and which the effect? This problem also remains unsolved. Until more is known, however, of the deeper cause and effect relations, the school man should busy himself by seeking to discover, understand, and prevent physical defects. The greatest value that this study can have is to point out the need for a wider examination of these relationships. If on a sufficiently wide universe it should be determined just what increase in achievement would accompany removal of one or more defects, the value of such treatment would be strongly shown.

PROBLEM-SOLVING METHOD IN TEACHING THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

R. RAY SCOTT
West Virginia Wesleyan College

Despite the constructive work which has been done by Keatinge,[1] Marshall, Wright and Field,[2] and others in the development of the problem-solving methods in the school sciences, most high-school teachers have scarcely begun to realize the possibilities of the method. For several years the writer has been striving to perfect in his high-school methods classes a technique of teaching which would be effective there and at the same time illustrate the problem-solving procedure urged upon students. In the present study he attempts to outline a problem-solving technique for teaching students how to use problem solving in presenting history to their pupils.

Plan of Presentation

I. Five principles involved in reflective thinking are set forth and briefly discussed.

II. These principles are embodied in a plan of classroom procedure in high-school methods, the topic being "The Teaching of History."

III. A last word, in which is stated what the writer believes to be a sensible, conservative attitude toward the use of problem solving in teaching the social sciences.

I. Principles Involved in Reflective Thinking

1. Concepts must be present in the mind which are germane to the problem on hand—

Habit is the power to profit by experience without effort; thinking is the power to profit by experience with effort. The experience utilized is in the form of memory images which can be, or have been, synthesized into concepts. A soluble problem is one for which the individual's past experience provides concepts that have a logical relationship with the reconstructed concepts needed for the readjustment. A South Sea Islander who has never seen a seismograph

[1] *Studies in the Teaching of History*, Adam and Charles Black, London, 1910.
[2] *Outlines of Economics, Developed as a Series of Problems*, University of Chicago Press, 1912.

would be unable to discover the use of that instrument. A man who knows the use of an ergograph and who perchance knows a little Greek might solve the problem.

2. Lack of adjustment to environment—

Life is a process of constant readjustment to environment. The power of reflective thought is the most effective instrument of readjustment to an artificial environment. It is invoked when there is disharmony in the individual's experience. This may be imposed from without by action of physical or intellectual environment, or it may be induced from within by reason of the dynamic quality of mind. In either case the maladjustment must be of sufficient seriousness or attractiveness to compensate for the effort demanded and lead the individual to isolate the difficulty and follow out reflection to its logical conclusion. Of course there can be incomplete thinking and imperfect adjustment (all adjustment is relative), but that is not the point now under consideration.

3. Multiple hypothesis—

The complexity of life is matched by the resourcefulness of man's response system. Our versatile action system is an effective instrument of adjustment only because of the superior versatility of our central nervous system which controls actions. This characteristic on the mental side, just as on the physical, varies tremendously by heredity and marks the difference between men as thinkers. An infertile mind can be stimulated by suggestion, but it is doubtful if much permanent modification can be secured.

> Corollary 1. Mental hospitality—A mind which is nonreceptive to apt suggestions because of religious, political, customary, or traditive prepossessions, or any other form of "idol," hampers itself in the search for truth and warps thinking.

4. Mental "manipulation"—

Given several suggested solutions, an intra-ideational struggle takes place, the criterion of fitness being ability to solve the difficulty. That intangible capacity, also an hereditary variable, to recognize the inner logical relationships between certain concepts, to perceive that certain ideational consequences appertain to certain causes, to apply generalizations to isolated ideas to classify them, or to apply ideas to generalizations in order to test their validity—that is the gist of the thinking process. It is the *reflective* part.

> Corollary 1—Reflection requires time; hence, the stamp of ap-

proval should not be put on a solution until all reasonable evidence or all available evidence has been canvassed. A suit of clothes selected hastily may be a good suit or a bad suit, but it is still a suit and answers its purpose relatively well. A solution adopted hastily (where taking a chance is not necessary) may be a good venture or a bad one, but it may turn out to be no *solution* at all.

Corollary 2. Generalization—In the discussion of the second principle above, it is pointed out that the necessity to think should be of such poignancy that the individual will be held to an integrated train of thought until a conclusion is reached. The stages in the process are marked by generalizations, the last one drawn summing up the progress which has been made. An excellent example of this in the development of an "argument" is furnished by Prof. H. H. Horne in his "The Philosophy of Education."[3] He builds up a comprehensive definition of education by presenting his discussion under a series of generalizations, each of which adds some new concept to the initial generalization.

Corollary 3. Intellectual honesty and courage—The trained thinker rigorously checks the influence of personal preferences. It is a part of human nature to see what we want to see, and *vice versa*. Lack of plausibility and pertinence to the question are the only legitimate reasons for rejection. It is said of Kepler that he "never allowed the labor he had spent upon any conjecture to produce any reluctance in abandoning the hypothesis as soon as he had evidence of its inaccuracy."[4]

5. Verification by experiment if possible—

When a thinker tries an idea by examining its logical behavior—i. e., evaluating its capacity to serve his purpose by referring it to standard concepts—he is really *verifying* it. Since, however, a large part of reflective thought is done in connection with concrete situations involving materials, and is expected to eventuate in action, it is a mark of the careful thinker to verify his conclusions by concrete experimentation when possible. Many of the problems of life cannot be thus verified. In contrasting two courses of action and choosing one, you cannot always tell whether or not the other might not, after all, have been better.

---

[3] See pages 30, 52, 95, 150, 251, 285.
[4] Parker, S. C.: *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, page 182.

II. Classroom Teacher-Training Technique

In the following section is presented a sample unit of classroom technique, wherein the instructor's aim is to teach prospective teachers the advantages of the problem-solving method in teaching history:

General Outline of Procedure

Topic—The Teaching of History (Problem-Solving Procedure).
Class of college seniors.
Class periods: 55 minutes each. (Three periods are used.)

Outline of the lesson plan—

(A) Providing for continuity of experience.
(B) Creating disharmony in experience and clearly defining the difficulty.
(C) Multiple hypothesis.
(D) Mental manipulation.

(A) Providing for continuity of experience—

(a) Question the class on various types of method previously studied and make a list of these on the board.
(b) Review the subjects taught by the several methods and the reasons therefor.
(c) Review salient points on the nature of thinking studied in the psychology course or in educational psychology.

(B) Creating disharmony in experience and clearly defining difficulty—

(a) Distribute mimeographed sheets containing some standardized history test material, such as Van Wagenen's scales in American history,[5] and ask students to indicate by "yes" and "no" the questions they can and cannot answer. (Allow five minutes.) Summarize the results on the board. They will invariably bring conviction of the need for improving instruction in history.
(b) Announce that each member of the class will be required to outline and teach a history lesson in a directed teaching period, employing the suggestions developed in this class discussion.

---

[5] Van Wagenen: "Scales in American History," Teachers College, Columbia University.

(c) State the problem and agree as to its meaning.

Problem: Is the problem-solving method appropriate to the teaching of history in high school, and why?

(a) "Problem-solving method" — distinguished from other methods of teaching how?

(b) "Appropriate to"—not *can* it be used or *may* it be used, but *should* it be used because it is best calculated to produce the desired results.

(d) Stress the importance of clearly delimiting the problem in reflective thought.

(C) Multiple hypothesis—

(a) Have students write, for nine minutes, in two columns, all the positive and negative answers to the problem they can think of. The teacher walks among the students, stimulating fertility of suggestion by urging them to analyze the problem, suggesting points that have a bearing on the question, etc.

Assignment—

(1) Make an intensive study of Parker, S. C., *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, pp. 169-193.

(2) Write, to be handed in the following day, a summary of the principles concerning teaching history as a school subject (i. e., its educational values and the types of learning involved) that would be useful in establishing the validity of the solution which you will adopt.

The *second period* opens with a brief summary by the teacher of the progress made on the previous day (five minutes). This should be entered in students' notebooks.

(b) Several students, as many as seems desirable, are asked to state the solution adopted by them, with one or two chief principles upon which these are based. The list is written on the board (ten minutes).

(a) If the following principles are not mentioned, the teacher should see that they are included—

(1) The method should be the obverse of the learning process.

(2) The method also determines what shall be learned.

(3) In history study, pupils acquire information, develop capacity for thinking in terms of that information, and acquire ideals.

(4) Information is best acquired by drill or memoritor method, though general principles must be first thought through, if they are to be effectually retained.

(5) The development of the capacity for thinking in terms of historical knowledge is best acquired by actually thinking in those terms.

(6) Ideals are just ideas suffused with a feeling or emotional tone, and are probably acquired in much the same way as are ideas—the thinking process.

(7) No method is likely to be justifiable which takes a longer time to secure desired results than some other.

(D) Mental manipulation—

(a) Advantages of deferred judgment are set forth.

(b) By vote of the class, the most plausible hypothesis noted on the board is decided upon and then taken up for discussion.

(a) Are the principles presented under it the most promising ones available?

(b) The best principle is agreed upon and tested as to the authenticity of its origin. Opinion is contrasted with empirically established inferences.

(c) Each student who enters the discussion is held strictly accountable for proof of his assertions. The teacher checks illogical talk when this is overlooked by the students. The general principle or principles adopted are used to test the validity of arguments offered.

(d) Students who do not participate are roused into action by direct questioning.

(e) If the teacher believes original principle or principles selected are fallacious, suggestions at the proper places bring the class to a speedy realization of that fact, and the process is then repeated with a more promising lead.

(c) Summarizing statements of the progress made are called for at appropriate points, and the discussion as a whole is so concluded. These statements should be entered in notebooks.

Assignment—

(1) Intensive study of Parker, S. C., *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, pp. 193-205.

(2) Make a lesson plan for a history lesson which you will teach in your practice period. Use the problem-solving method. Consult the supervisor of teaching as to administrative details.

It is assumed that the class will have arrived at valid conclusions at the end of the second period. If not, the mental manipulation should continue until the following decision is reached:

Conclusion—Problem-solving teaching is essential to effective teaching of history in order that facts may be understood and retained and that pupils may be able to think in terms of historical knowledge. Drill or memoritor work is not ruled out for pure informational elements.

Complete Schedule of Time Distribution for the Above Work

First period:

Providing for continuity of experience	15 minutes
Creating feeling of disharmony and defining difficulty	25 minutes
Multiple hypothesis	10 minutes
Assignment	5 minutes
Total	55 minutes

Second period:

Summary of preceding day's work	5 minutes
Multiple hypothesis	35 minutes
Mental manipulation	10 minutes
Assignment	5 minutes
Total	55 minutes

Third period:

Summary of preceding day's work	5 minutes
Mental manipulation	45 minutes
Assignment	5 minutes
Total	55 minutes

III. A Last Word

The teaching of "methods," like most other content subjects, has, when viewed from the psychological standpoint, mixed objectives. Many roads may be traveled, perhaps *must* be traveled, to reach the desired goals. The writer does not advocate that all instruction in "high-school methods" be organized on the plan suggested above. There is room, perhaps, for all the kinds of instruction suggested by Miss Earhart in her book, *Types of Teaching;* yet it cannot be gainsaid that a goodly proportion of the type of technique outlined above will be desirable. If anything is to be got out of the study of history, we are asking too much of our high-school teachers to require them

to get this thinking through the use of a memoriter method. Modified forms of the problem method are not in question.

By the same line of reasoning, if we hope to get reflection on the psychology of learning and means of controlling or utilizing it from our students in "methods," we shall have to cast at least a portion of our own teacher-training technique into the problem-solving mold. The problems need not be as long as the one presented above. In fact, a class may deal with several problems in the space of one period; but the form of procedure will be essentially the same if we are to escape from the random talk which often makes up our so-called "developmental lesson."

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF BULLETIN BOARDS IN SCHOOL

J. STANLEY PULLEN
Principal of High School, Ripley, Tenn.

Let the end justify the means. The chief routine objectives in school work, beyond regular publicity of announcements, are the keeping up of interest, the guiding of thought, and the helping to give set to character among boys and girls. The means in this case is a simple bulletin board. This board is made of "beaver board" or some soft wood, in a size suited to the place it is to occupy. Place it in some well-lighted, much-frequented location. If it is to be used for your own room, just inside your door is a desirable place. It is for the students; put it where they are. Thumb tacks are needed for posting articles, but carpet tacks will do. Some boy with a constructive turn will make the board for you, and thereby gain interest in reading what you put on it.

The thing of greatest significance is what you put on the board. Let it be suggestive, constructive, humorous, serious, open, symbolic, but withal *clean*. Let nothing that is questionable ever appear on your board, else its power for good is largely neutralized. Let nothing grow stale on the board; make your series breezy and varied, full of change.

After you have run the board long enough for the students to get the spirit of it, let volunteers put up something that appeals to them and that they think will benefit the group. Detail certain ones for the week, or other period, to keep something of common appeal on the board. They like it and will surprise you with their original ideas. There is a danger that in their zeal they may mutilate some book or other permanent publication to get some striking illustration. Guard the magazines.

Such a bulletin board lends itself to many uses. One use that I make of it is to enliven an otherwise depressing examination. For example, I have the schedule of the semester examinations, here in our school, posted on the main bulletin board in the hall; and just above this schedule I place this legend, "Our June Clearance"—cut from the daily paper. This amuses the students, because the thought strikes some of them that it means to clear out the deadwood. The second day the schedule is headed with "Annual Inventory." This puts the examination in the light of a true stock taking. The third day the schedule is topped with "Watch Out for High Blood Pressure." The

humor of this helps keep down the rising dread and nervousness. The fourth day every one reads, "Fear is Your Worst Enemy." Having this truth called to their attention in this connection tends to allay whatever groundless fear pupils may have. Just before the examinations start, I post a funny picture of a boy attacked by a swarm of hornets and diving headlong into a near-by pond which has an indefinite depth of mud just under the surface. The title of this picture is, "The Worst is Yet to Come." At the close of the examinations I put up this little poem, from the *Michigan Christian Advocate:*

> A sad-faced little fellow sits alone in deep disgrace;
> There's a lump arising in his throat, and tears stream down his face.
> He's wandered from his playmates, for he doesn't want to hear
> Their shouts of merry laughter, since the world has lost its cheer;
> He has sipped the cup of sorrow, he has drained the bitter glass,
> And his heart is fairly breaking—he's the boy who didn't pass.

When something of importance happens, it is put on the board in the form of picture, cartoon, or clipping. For example, the picture of the three Oberammergau passion players—Andreas Lang, Sr., Anton Lang, and Guido Mayer—came out in the daily paper some time ago, just before their visit to America. This went on the board at once, along with a short quotation from Anton Lang, and got attention to these men and their mission here. Another item of interest was the clipping about the winner of the Firestone University scholarship, a girl in circumstances much like theirs. In this way the outstanding events of the day are kept before the students.

In the line of poetry, one example will have to suffice. One day I post "The House by the Side of the Road," by Sam Walter Foss, with its strong message of friendship to man. When all have had ample time to read this poem, I put up the answer to it, "Let Me Walk with the Men in the Road," by Walter J. Gresham. These two poems usually stir up a healthy controversy.

One of the best uses I find for the bulletin board is to display striking thoughts and mottoes, such as: "Hustle will get you more than horseshoes;" "Go on or go under;" "Don't be a *shrub,* be a *tree;*" "Get your *happiness* out of your *work,* or you will never know what *real happiness* is." One of the best things I use is Joe Wing's prayer:

> Now we get us up to work,
> We pray the Lord we may not shirk;
> If we should die before the night,
> We pray the Lord our work's all right.

If this little idea is worth anything, pass it along to school people and others who care to use it.

AN EXPERIMENT IN SCHOOLROOM DECORATION

CHARLOTTE HODGES
Senior High School, Little Rock, Ark.

Every one realizes that his physical surroundings often affect his feelings and his attitude. Most people agree to the statement that group work on a definite, purposeful undertaking brings effort, understanding, and pleasure. On these two assumptions I based my belief in the idea of interior decoration of the schoolroom. As I sorrowfully surveyed my dingy, colorless classroom, I said to myself: "Why not have a pretty room? You have all you need to begin—a group of willing boys and girls." I set to work.

My home group of girls was approached first with a few remarks on the possibility of making our room attractive. They immediately responded. How much would it cost? After some investigation, we made our estimate. Only $15! Could we make it? Yes. How? Sell candy.

The candy sales were a success. Demand exceeded supply. Nickels and dimes came pouring in. Soon we had the amount.

The president of the home group appointed committees—a curtain committee, a floor committee, all sorts of committees. The chairman of each solicited aid from the classes. The workers had to agree to remain at least an hour when their turns came. It was gratifying to see that among the volunteers were pupils not ordinarily connected with many school activities. Some of our indolent boys enlisted as painters or carpenters. A few timid, obscure little girls were only too glad of an opportunity to show what they could do.

A classroom with drab-colored walls, scarred desks, glaring windowpanes, unornamented furniture, was transformed into a cozy, restful living room. The walls were tinted a delicate green, with a cream-colored ceiling. The desks were sandpapered and varnished. The floors were oiled. The woodwork was stained. Dainty curtains were hung. Some pot plants appeared; likewise a new vase and some covers for the desk and for the bookcase. Things looked decidedly fresh and inviting.

From this enterprise came other returns. If in arriving at this conclusion I have allowed my imagination to color my observations, I prefer not to be disillusioned. (1) As a result, we had fun. We joked; we laughed; we became acquainted. (2) The pupils gained

some practical ideas about household proceedings—how to make estimates, how to tint walls, how to go about softening the lines of a room. (3) Some of our class work became more vital and pleasing because of the fact that we had some interesting compositions on subjects suggested by this project. One girl worked out an attractive illustrated booklet on *Color Combinations for the Living Room.* A fun-loving boy wrote an amusing skit on *The Danger of Being a Carpenter.* Various other subjects suggested themselves. (4) The activity of the workers and the atmosphere of the completed room had a unique effect on the morale of my classes. Certain slow, unambitious groups showed signs of waking up, and finally were aroused. There grew out of informal association a more sympathetic relationship between teacher and pupil. Children who never had been leaders in class showed excellent ability in handling certain practical matters. Self-confidence thus gained spurred them on to greater effort in school work.

Any teacher who tries the plan will have to be careful of several things: (1) To use older boys and girls to do the work. Senior high-school students are most interested in this sort of thing. (2) To push the undertaking right through before the young people lose their zeal. (3) To keep an enthusiastic and commendatory attitude and manner while the work is going on.

I have not mentioned the teacher's weary attempts at supervision after school hours, the accidents (the ladder broke down once!), the mistakes—especially that error which caused one curtain to be two inches longer than the other. But we thought it all worth while. I pass on the idea—not as something new, but simply as a suggestion to teachers whose classrooms are not what they should be.

EDITORIALS

THE COST OF TEXTBOOKS

The sales price of textbooks, if the unvarnished truth were to be made known, would be found to consist of an interesting variety of factors. There are, in the first place, the manufacturing costs, including royalties to authors. Textbooks are the best books made; no cheap grades of material or workmanship enter into their composition; if this were not so, they could not "stand up" under the hard usage given by children. The major part of the cost of any volume is the solid, unstinted cost of good paper, the best possible printing, and durable, attractive binding. Secondly, there is the cost of publicity and sales. Books must be advertised; a reasonable profit, actually very closely figured, must be made by the retailer; and traveling salesmen must be maintained to develop and protect the market. All these expenses are closely akin to the costs involved in any other kind of manufacturing. They are stable and can be reckoned very closely.

But there are other costs, much less easily figured. Roughly classified, these are: the cost of experimental production, the peculiar costs involved in having teachers for customers, and the not at all negligible expense occasioned by the perennial meddling of politicians in matters pertaining to schools and textbooks.

EXPERIMENTATION IN TEXTBOOKS

Schoolbook publishers are, as a group, very progressive, not conservative. The companies differ, of course; there are a few "standpatters" and perhaps a few radicals. The greater part of the business is done by firms who in their production of the textual materials for teaching are, in educational vision, well in advance of the majority of teachers and school executives. Education is progressing rapidly. Textbook publishers must, from sane business prudence, aim ahead—at the market of the near future, not that of the recent past. The result is much experimental production. Almost every publisher puts forth not a few books which eventually prove to be financially un-

profitable. Sometimes such ventures are quite deliberate—one might say, altruistic. More often they are an essay put forth hopefully. A few very excellent books, for one reason or another (often because they outreach teachers), fail wholly of popularity.

The value to the school world of this tremendous vitality in textbook publishers is incalculable. Book production is perhaps the most thoroughly alive phase of American education. No thoughtful teacher would curtail it or stifle it. The financial cost of experimental striving must, of course, become an increment to the price of books which prove salable, but it is a farthing to be paid ungrudgingly.

TEACHERS AND TEXTBOOKS

School people are peculiar customers. Certainly an appreciable part, perhaps a surprisingly substantial part, of the ultimate price of a textbook and, more particularly, of the gross collective cost of all the schoolbooks bought by a parent for his child in an average community during an average year, is due to the idiosyncrasies of teachers.

For one thing, textbook publishers are obliged to *give away* a larger proportion of their wares, in order to sell the rest, than any other manufacturer. As a rule, school people will not even consider for adoption a proposed text unless a free copy has been first presented outright to each teacher concerned in the choice. And after an adoption has been made (particularly of high-school and college books), teachers not included in the first distribution (and some who were!—for the sake of having duplicates) will unhesitatingly request free "desk copies"—copies, however, not now so freely given as formerly. One rarely visits a teacher's sanctum without observing rows of books which cost him nothing but importunity. They cost *somebody* something; they are a part of the expense of book sales, to be reckoned into the price parents must pay.

A very gross abuse of free samples of textbooks is also prevalent, so unethical that perhaps it ought to be glossed over, not revealed. Not a few school people *sell* to secondhand dealers the books which accumulate on their shelves. They do this seemingly without shame. There are few publishers who do not have to buy in, from the large secondhand bookstores, very considerable numbers of new text-

books which a little while before were given out to teachers as *gratis* inspection copies.

The greatest addition to textbook costs arising from the characteristic ways of teachers comes, however, from another source—the constant replacing of one textbook by another in succeeding years.

Changes in textbooks are often, and perhaps usually, justifiable. The school in which new, better textbooks do not rather frequently succeed the old is palpably not giving to children the educational advantages which they ought to have. Nevertheless, it is true that quite groundless changes are frequently made.

Teachers share with every one else the likelihood of blaming their own failings on supposed inadequacies in the tools used. When the school goes badly, they are themselves seldom at fault; it is the textbooks. A change of books is recommended as the obvious remedy. "Whenever a teacher fails, a textbook fails," is almost a proverb. To a certain extent this situation may be charged to the keenness of competition among textbook makers; their field representatives, of course, seize every prospect of business, and a little suggestion to open ears sometimes goes a long way. Nevertheless, the best publishers decry too frequent change; an adoption for one year only, with the expenses incidental to it, often means an actual financial loss.

The real sources of incessant changes of textbooks lie probably in two causes—the one, that there are so many poor, inadequate teachers; the other, that there is such a wide choice of really excellent books. The first of these facts is, or ought to be, a public scandal, but it is not the burden of our present song. The second is notable. American schools would be very much poorer than they are to-day if the initiative of textbook publishers had not forged ahead creatively. Our schools are "textbook ridden," it is true; but this is perhaps the outstanding bulwark which saves them from mediocrity. Many texts are, indeed, almost "foolproof"—that is, hardly any teacher can misuse them so as to spoil their value as educational instruments. This is a *desideratum* among publishers. Nevertheless, when poor, groping teachers realize that they are getting inadequate results with pupils, the very richness of the textbook field makes them grasp at some *other* book—probably really no better and no worse—than the one with which they are failing.

Another way of saying all this is that the public pays in the price of textbooks a part of its unescapable bill for the high cost of being willing to put up with poorly paid, and therefore inadequate, teachers. The law of averages is at work.

TEXTBOOKS AND POLITICS

Politicians are unfortunately not foreign to the schools. They influence in three ways the price of textbooks. First, in one manner or another, some of them collect tribute. If this is altogether private, it becomes "graft" and is disreputable. If it is semi-impersonal, it may possibly have a better odor. Secondly, they provide constant agitation, or the likelihood of agitation, which must be to some extent watched and counteracted. And, last, they often impair the validity even of actual legal contracts regarding textbooks, contracts upon which publishers have relied and toward fulfilling which they have invested money.

All these are sources of expense, perhaps of considerable expense; and a margin sufficient to cover them must be figured quietly into every textbook contract. A publisher can never be quite sure of dealing with an American community on a straightforward basis of value squarely given and received. If he did so, he would probably fail in business because of submarine attacks, imperceptible to ordinary view, by the self-styled friends and protectors of the "dear people."

Politicians must have issues. If there are no real issues, or if the real ones are too hot for expediency, some must be manufactured. This is a part of democratic government; no truths could be more obvious. Now, the best issues are those which touch the pocketbooks of the greatest number of persons. And the best catchwords inform the public picturesquely that it is being robbed or, if the other side speaks, that it would be unmercifully robbed except for the watchful care of its public officials, who, therefore, merit support. Politicians are a costly accessory to our government; we pay for them and their methods very heavily.

Schoolbooks form an excellent tilting ground for political encounters. They are universal; every family is immediately concerned; and catch phrases are easily applied. Usually, at the heart of the talk, there is little or no truth. Nearly always, however, when schools or textbooks are dragged into politics, the public eventually pays a very appreciable bill for the adventure.

In fully half a dozen states, during the preëlection campaigning now just over, textbooks were made somewhat of an issue. In one, a prominent candidate saw in their present high cost (as if nothing else had gone up) a good target for rapid-fire stump speaking. And his distinguished opponent, defending an "economy" administration, took much credit to himself for a bit of sharp dealing in schoolbooks by

which he recently saved much money to virtuous citizens (and proved himself worthy of their support) by advancing a week or two the date of opening of the public-school year this fall, thus requiring the textbook publishers to equip in August the pupils for the coming year under the five-year state-wide contract expiring September 1, instead of a new, succeeding contract, which, the publishers have frankly stated, because of increased manufacturing costs, must be at higher prices. Does any thoughtful person really consider that this statesman by his *coup d' état* actually saved the public much money at the expense of the publishers? Alas, it is probable that his trick of twisting a legal contract in a manner clearly not foreseen or intended by either party to its making, and possible only because the book publishers had not sufficiently protected themselves against chicanery on the part of the commonwealth, will be (with all other dealings of its kind) an expense, not a saving, to parents of children. A business man who deals with politicians must anticipate their ways and figure the possible cost thereof into his contracts.

The book publishers, no doubt, did not foresee this particular bit of evasion of contract, but they are not unsophisticated. Year in and year out the politicians who blanket the school systems exact tribute from them in one way or another. They do not know when, where, or how the "touch" will come, but they know it is inevitable. It is a part of the expense—a part of the bill that every parent pays for his children's textbooks, an overhead that must be counted into every sales contract made.

The cost of textbooks is, indeed, complex. Probably there is no other form of widely sold merchandise whose price is modified by more factors. And the remarkable thing about it, after all, is that textbooks continue to be so good and (considering the price of all commodities) are so cheap.

RENSSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE
1824-1924

A notable centenary in the annals of American education has just been celebrated in Troy, N. Y. To-day there are in the United States more than one hundred thirty colleges or departments of applied science. In 1824 there was only Rensselaer. The Lawrence Scientific School, of Harvard, and the Sheffield Scientific School, of Yale, were

not established until 1847. The University of Michigan college of engineering was organized in 1853. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology opened in 1865; Worcester, Stevens, and Case, in 1868, 1871, and 1881. The universities of Illinois and Minnesota inaugurated their courses in technology in 1868; "Wisconsin," its courses in 1870. All these, except Yale, are direct offspring of Rensselaer. The essential features of every technical school have sprung from its experience. Nor is Rensselaer less notable, though the fact is easily overlooked, for its primacy in pure science. It was the first institution to establish and maintain a department of science, including field work and laboratory practice, and the first to give a Bachelor of Arts degree for work done primarily in science. During the second and third quarters of the nineteenth century it blazed the pathway which American education has since chiefly followed. Of the new civilization, of which it is a symbol, Rensselaer was the first exponent.

FULIGO SPLENDENS

"We must have some of *that*," said the young science teacher, poring over the supply catalog. "Some of what?" asked the old one. "Fuligo splendens; it sounds as if it might be useful in the laboratory. We'll get some, and try it for a year." "It *is* useful," replied the old teacher, "but you need not send off for it; there is plenty at home."

Fuligo splendens, a name appearing in any fairly complete list of chemicals, is the scientific name for *soot*. The name *does* have a most professional, postgraduate sound—a ponderous dignity which the short, explosive monosyllable quite lacks. The latter may be suitable for use by the untrained, or by those with mere practical experience; the former is appropriate for those in the upper walks of the profession. What chimney would not hold its cap higher if it but realized that *fuligo*, of the *splendens* variety, coated its inside?

How often a splendid name is sprung upon the educational world, which, after practical teachers "try it for a year," proves to be something they have always done! A "method," a "plan," a "system," denominated by a clever adjectivated name—sometimes interwoven with that of the person who admits its authorship—turns out to be a common trick known since antiquity by every wise teacher.

Some of the things that come along are really new. Standard tests

are an example. Until a few years ago it had never been possible to secure the amount of coöperation from widely scattered teachers which is necessary to standardize a test. This new source of data furnished a field for new applications of statistics. Some genuinely new standards of achievement have been developed; some old standards, established upon common sense, have received new buttresses to their foundations.

We cannot criticize a teacher for maintaining a cool, conservative attitude toward these "new," loftily named movements in education. The methods that have come straight from experience, without ownership labels, usually have simple names. It is not necessary to send off for them; they are very much at home in every successful school. As a rule, however, it will do no harm to take one of these splendidly appellativated educational marvels and "try it for a year" for the simple purpose of identifying it unmistakably in terms which one has always known.

STANDING THE GAFF

"Long ago," remarked a woman who has one of the finest positions of its kind in the country and is envied, no doubt, by many another person—"long ago I learned to comfort myself by assuming that half my fine salary is paid me as compensation for standing the gaff."

Year in and year out she endures daily what, indeed, no lady—and no gentleman—ought to tolerate. But she holds on. She is not foot free. She may not do what every instinct prompts her to do; others are dependent on her; she keeps her position, and is silent.

A petty tyrant is her overlord. Glowering from his little throne, he seems to lose no opportunity to humiliate. This, apparently he considers, promotes efficiency. There is no praise, no friendliness, no recognition of work well done; only threats, real or implied, a glum, noncommittal sourness, an eagle eye for every flaw, and a gleefully satanic memory for every mistake, no matter how long since, which was ever made. These she is never permitted to forget.

Yet the picture painted is only one side of this petty despot. Indeed, it presents not so much himself as the conventional, widely accepted way in which he serves the miserable god, Mammon, that employs him. To the world at large he is a more or less estimable gentleman—rather placid, rather prosy, but a good husband and fa-

ther, and surely respectable. And to his superiors (in the great machine in which they all are engulfed) he is a colorless sub-executive, negligible because his department gives little trouble.

With what friction, what strain, what punishment of the spirit (known only to the good Lord above) does high-strung, worth-while humanity bend itself to the mold into which the kind of organization compassed by modern industrialism forces it!

TURNING OVER A NEW LEAF

What a blessed thing it is that, after we have made a mess of things, we can start all over—wipe the slate clean, pretend that we never were stupid, remember only the best in our past endeavors, only our successes, not our failures, and look forward with dreams of accomplishment which are quite untarnished by the fact that in the past we have fallen short again and again from realizing them!

Perhaps school-teachers are unusually fortunate because they are such nomads. Along with the handicaps is the unquestionable blessing that in each new community one can let the past be past and can begin all over again. Who of us has not made mistakes? Who of us does not look back to some chapter of the past with something akin to shame? Who of us has not greeted with a thrill of joy the opportunity to put forward a new, perhaps fire-tried, self in a strange but friendly community, whose new, expectant faces hold forth an incentive to courage and conquest?

As with teachers, so with pupils. Relatively seldom, indeed, do these change their communities, although some of them do; but their teachers change, and the effect is much the same. A child is entitled—he will be *helped*—by the opportunity to turn over a page and let it remain thereafter unread. Teachers, who seize the advantage eagerly for themselves, often will not permit boys and girls to put forward their own new, better selves. Is anything more pitiful than the lad with a "bad-boy" reputation, but really with no evil in him, only vitality, who is thwarted year after year from putting his real, sunny self into his school life? Well, indeed, does a certain schoolboy of a generation ago remember the set, forbidding faces of the teachers who confronted him year after year, and the one shining exception to the whole ignoble group of them. From her a new incentive toward real manhood began.

THE NEW BOOKS ON OUR SHELF

Essentials of Speech. By JOHN R. PELSMA (Pittsburg, Kan., State Teachers College). New York: T. Y. Crowell Co., 1924. Pp. x + 326. Price, $2 net.

A textbook in all phases of speech except dramatics, for high-school or elementary college use. Practical; usable; comprehensive.

What Can Literature Do for Me? By C. ALPHONSO SMITH. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1924. Pp. 220. Price, $1.

An invigorating revision of a notable book. At some time toward the beginning of their literature course, high-school seniors ought to read and assimilate it thoroughly.

Our Faith in Education. By HENRY SUZZALLO (President, University of Washington). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924. Pp. 108. Price, $1.25.

Inspirational. The epitome of many addresses by the author at educational conventions. Designed to give teachers a better understanding of their own part in building foundations for a great democracy.

A Book of Letters for Young People. By STELLA S. CENTER and LILIAN M. SAUL. New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. xxii + 219. Price, 85 cents.

A charming textbook for (we should say) a seventh or eighth-grade class of youngsters with cultural backgrounds. Simple, attractive material for enjoyable reading and to stimulate one's own personal style. C. S. P.

Social Life and Institutions. By JOSEPH K. HART. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1924. Pp. vi + 423. Illustrated. Price, $1.80.

A vivid, concrete, notably well-organized textbook for high-school or elementary college classes. Good also, we think, for reading circles of adults. Written in a tense, swift-moving style, skillful in phrasing matters liable to prejudiced antagonism.

Teaching English in Junior High Schools. By HATTIE L. HAWLEY (H. S., Worcester, Mass.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. (Riverside Educational Monographs), 1924. Pp. ix + 142. Price, $1.20.

A chatty, readable little book, hitting some of the high places of modern teaching of speech, writing, and literature. Brings together attractively much good practice. C. S. P.

Supervised Study Speller. By W. F. TIDYMAN (Farmville, Va., State Normal School). Yonkers: World Book Co., 1924. Pp. xii + 132. Price, 52 cents.

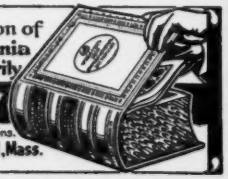
An excellent modern speller, scientific in basis. Words in each lesson are grouped according to a common difficulty. Rigid arrangement of vocabulary, specifying the exact spelling lesson for each week of a seven-year school course. Particular, insistent directions for study and for teaching. A supplementary

"standard" test provided, and provision made for standardizing this. At the end of the course, pupils should be able to spell freely a minimum of 3,250 common words. C. S. P.

Précis Writing. By SAMUEL THURBER (Newton, Mass., H. S.). Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1924. Pp. xii + 150. Price, 90 cents.

A beautiful little book, by a competent teacher, on an important and much-neglected phase of English, but damned by its name. (One might as well expect an American boy to succeed under the name "Launcelot.") *Methods of Abridging, Summarizing, and Condensing* is the real title. Important. Worth consideration. We wish it were not arranged under the now fast-fading Forms of Discourse classification. The first paragraph of the General Editor's foreword ought to be broadcast widely. C. S. P.

Whatever Your Question;-be it the pronunciation of Fascista, the spelling of a puzzling word, the location of Esthonia the meaning of soviet, realtor, vitamin, etc. this Supreme Authority
WEBSTER'S NEW INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY
contains an accurate, final answer. 407,000 Words. 2700 Pages. 6000 Illustrations.
Regular and India-Paper Editions. G. & C. MERRIAM CO., Springfield, Mass.
Write for specimen pages, prices, etc. and FREE Pocket Maps per



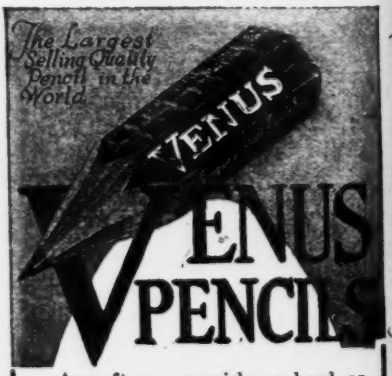
A SOURCE OF SUPPLY
FOR
School Art Materials
Miscellaneous School Supplies
Kindergarten Materials

PUBLISHERS OF
PRACTICAL DRAWING BOOKS
PRACTICAL WRITING COURSE

Write our nearest office for Catalog or for prices

WE WILL TREAT YOU RIGHT

PRACTICAL DRAWING COMPANY
(J. L. LONG, President; Class '82)
1516 S. Wabash Ave, Chicago, Illinois
Box 1143 Dallas, Texas



As soft as you wish; as hard as you please; but always smoother than you had dreamed.

17 Black Degrees 3 Copying

For bold, heavy lines . . 6B-5B-4B-3B
For writing, sketching . 2B-B-HB-F-H
For clean, fine lines . 2H-3H-4H-5H-6H
For delicate, thin lines . . . 7H-8H-9H
Plain Ends, per doz. . $1.00
Rubber Ends, per doz. . 1.20

At Stationers and Stores throughout the World

American Lead Pencil Co.
220 Fifth Avenue, New York

ber

end
mon
P.

ntic

uch-
pect
idg-
con-
s of
vord
P.

JS
LS

rd as
other

g
B
H
H
H

o.
k